The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 6, 1896.

The Week.

THE practical failure of the New York city loan of $3,800,000 and the similar failure of the $1,500,000 loan in Brooklyn must be ascribed to the silver scare, for, although the bonds are specifically payable in gold, people who have money are very loath to part with it in squally times. They prefer to "keep themselves strong," as the saying is. This is especially true of savings banks, which are usually glad to get New York city bonds bearing 3½ per cent. interest. If they find their customers in an uneasy frame of mind, they fortify themselves with cash, not with securities, even of the gilt-edged variety. The Comptroller says that if he cannot sell the bonds, the city improvements must stop. Precisely so. The public business is getting into the same condition as other business. People will not invest their money in private enterprises till they know what the standard of value is to be. If that question is settled satisfactorily, there will be such an outpour of capital for American investment as has not been seen since 1879-82, when specie payments were resumed. Then everything that has a substantial value behind it will sell, and investors will climb over each other to get city bonds bearing 3½ per cent. interest.

Mr. McKinley is to be congratulated on having at last screwed his courage to the sticking-point and actually pronounced the dread word "gold." On the ears of some Pennsylvania pilgrims to Canton the word first fell on Thursday, and they did not blanch or tremble, but loudly cheered the gallant Major. He said "gold," it is true, in a casual and somewhat furtive way, looking around, as it were, for something to catch hold of when the crash came, and also hastening thereafter to take a good pull at the tariff to steady his nerves. But no crash came; the sun kept on shining and the earth did not rock. The next day, accordingly, Mr. McKinley rose fairly and squarely to the demands of the situation, declaring that in the future every dollar paid out by the Government, whether to bondholders or pensioners, should have the value of a gold dollar, as it had had that value in the past. He was especially happy in recalling to the old soldiers the distinguished services of their great commander, Grant, in vetoing the inflation bill and in signing the act that at once made the credit of our country unsurpassed by restoring the gold standard of value. It is greatly to be desired that in this campaign the issue of national honor shall be made prominent. Appeals to the selfish interests of classes may be effective, but they cannot arouse much enthusiasm. But appeals to loyalty and patriotism will be irresistible. They cannot be met by the free-silver advocates. The strongest motives to which they can appeal are the desire to get gain by dubious measures, and the emotion of envy. These are at times powerful motives, but they stand no chance of prevailing when honor is on the other side. Many plain people are confused by the intricacies of numerical ratios of values and coinage, and by confounding money and capital; but they can grasp the simple issue of maintaining the good faith of the Government. On this ground an aggressive campaign can be fought, and the advocates of cheap money compelled to explain away their own proposals.

Those who have been shuddering for fear the ship of state might be driven from her moorings by the cyclonic blasts of Bryan, may be counselled to read the calm utterances of Secretary Morton. He has a way of packing about as much good sense in his speeches as plain words will convey, and it is to be remembered that he is a Nebraskan, that he has been long prominent in political life, and that he has been very popular. It is certainly a cause for gratification that the issues of the present election are to be presented to Western farmers by so able and persuasive a speaker as the Secretary for the Department of Agriculture, and Mr. Bryan may find, when he undertakes the invasion of the Eastern States, that his enemies have captured his own stronghold. Mr. Morton brought out very forcibly, in the speech that he has just delivered at home, the influences that led to the demonetization of silver. If there was a conspiracy in 1873 against silver, he said, there was a crime against the flatboat by the steamboat, and a crime against the steamboat by the railroad, and against the horse by the trolley car and bicycle. We have enough silver dollars now, he said, to put $5.50 into the hands of every man, woman, and child in the United States. But they will not circulate. Modern business cannot be done with ancient appliances. A mowing-machine costs more than a scythe, but no farmer thinks that a scythe is cheaper because it costs less. A locomotive may cost $10,000 and a horse but $100; nevertheless the locomotive is a more economical instrument than the horse. Money does not differ in this respect from other tools. No one who wielded an axe would choose one thirty times as heavy as one that was equally good, although the latter cost thirty times as much. Every one who drives a plough selects the lightest one that will do the work. The term "cheap" applied to money is no recommendation unless we take efficiency into account. Such plain truths as these need to be repeated, line upon line, and we are glad that Secretary Morton has taken up the work.

Mr. Bourke Cockran has lost no time since his return from Europe in choosing and stating his position in the pending electoral contest. He squarely repudiates the repudiating candidates and platform of his party, and announces his intention to do all in his power to secure the election of Mr. McKinley. He has already offered his services as a stump-speaker for the honest-money cause, and no one who knows his capacities as a popular orator, and especially his great effectiveness in dealing with economic questions, can fail to regard this reinforcement as a notable one. Mr. Cockran also reminds Tammany how large a share of its brains it lost when it lost him, by pointing out to the eager Sheehans and Purroys that what they have done by their endorsement of Bryan is really to declare in favor of incorporating into the statute law of the country doctrines which they themselves had denounced as a singular combination of lunacy and villany. On the question of a third ticket Mr. Cockran takes a somewhat novel line. He agrees that there should be a convention of gold-standard Democrats to assert the true party creed and to associate themselves in an effort to bring about the defeat of Bryan. But he thinks that they should not nominate independent candidates of their own. They should, he believes, make an explicit avowal of their principles and of their determination to oppose Bryan and the Chicago platform at all hazards, and then simply endorse the McKinley electors. This, it seems to us, for reasons already set forth in these columns, betrays a somewhat defective grasp of the case for a separate Democratic ticket, with separate candidates pledged to make an aggressive fight.

Senator Jones of Arkansas occupies an uncomfortable position. It was a thankless task to attempt to guide such a horde of discordant and opinionated human beings as were gathered at the Populist convention at St. Louis, and the result achieved has been so embarrassing that apparently neither Mr. Bryan nor any one else knows what to do about it. The terrible Watson is openly defiant, and, being the most prominent representative of the Populists, he can make the diplomatic politicians of the Bryan party a great deal of trouble. In fact, Mr. Watson appears to have exhausted the stock of patience with which Senator Jones was provided, and the latter has been guilty of the extraordinary mistake of holding a "conversa-

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tion with two newspaper men" which he "regarded in the light of a private conversation." The two newspaper men, true to their nature, took a different view of the matter and gave the conversation a most awkward publicity. According to their account, Senator Jones gave the Southern Populists a very bad name, and intimated a willingness to have them "go to the negroes, where they belong." Probably nothing more offensive to the Southern Populists could have been said; and as they have the uncomfortable feeling of being really engaged in pulling the Democratic chestnuts out of the fire, they are sufficiently ready to take offence. It is but justice to Senator Jones to say that he denies having used the expression in question.

The election in Alabama on Monday seems to have resulted in an honest victory for the Democrats. The Fusionists will, of course, cry fraud, now that they have been beaten, but the evidence appears overwhelming that a good majority of the voters of the State preferred the Democratic ticket to the Republican-Populist combine. There was every reason why an intelligent man should make this choice. Johnston and Goodwyn, the Democratic and Fusionist candidates for Governor, are equally strong free-coinage men, but the influences behind Johnston promise a far better administration of State affairs than could have been expected from the "combine." Sound-money men, like Secretary Herbert, therefore, supported the Democratic ticket, and its success is undoubtedly best for the State.

The point raised in the arbitration correspondence between Lord Salisbury and Mr. Olney by the former—that it is important in a general treaty of arbitration to provide means in advance for withdrawing from it—is one which ought not to stand in the way of an agreement. A treaty of arbitration is like any other treaty, binding only so long as both parties feel bound to adhere to it. If either party becomes thoroughly convinced that a treaty imperils its substantial interests or honor, it will infallibly withdraw, and if necessary go to war. No treaty can prevent this, and it is therefore unnecessary to agree that it shall not be prevented by a treaty. One or two notorious instances in our own history illustrate this. The controversy over the claims for damage done by the *Alabama* created a state of popular irritation between England and the United States which threatened war. To avert this danger the claims were referred to arbitration, and hardly had this been done when the presentation of what were called our "indirect claims" made feeling on the English side run high again—the English grievance being that claims, enormous in amount, and not intended to be included in the treaty, ought not to be discussed at all. England threatened to withdraw. Had she withdrawn, the arbitration itself, the object of which was to secure peace, might have ended in war, and the arbitration treaty would have been mere waste paper. The knot was cut by the tribunal at Geneva deciding in advance that no such claims could be entertained. To this we voluntarily submitted, but no one could have compelled us to do so. In the same way the United States withdrew from its treaties with France of 1778, on the ground that France had violated some of their provisions. The important thing is to agree to arbitrate. Elaborate machinery to enable people to break a treaty is something new in diplomacy.

Such machinery in a treaty of arbitration is especially out of place because it tends to give the document an air of unreality. The essence of arbitration is that both parties agree in advance to *submit* to the award, and hence Lord Salisbury's suggestion of an agreement that any difference whatever (*i. e.*, such as involves honor or national integrity) may be submitted, with the proviso that the award shall not be valid unless accepted by both parties, is really a suggestion not of arbitration, but of escape from arbitration. Mr. Olney's suggestion in reply that it should be agreed that either party may withdraw in advance, on declaring its honor or integrity involved, is unnecessary, because this is what will be done whether it is provided or not, and it would seem as if final submission was not the whole object of the treaty. The fact is, that the ways of escape from arbitration are so unlimited in number that neither party risks anything in submitting to it, except the danger of being prevented by a sense of duty from committing a wrong—the very danger which it is desirable to prevent.

The proclamation of President Cleveland warning all persons of the consequences of violating our neutrality laws by rendering active assistance to the Cubans, is certainly a very commendable exercise of the power of the executive. Coming immediately after the wholesome result of the trial of the "filibusters" led by Dr. Jameson, it is calculated to promote respect for the obligations of international law, and to restrain the sympathizers with Cuba within bounds. It is quite probable that, before the recent decision of our Supreme Court, many of these persons believed that they might organize expeditions to land arms and forces in Cuba without danger except from the Spaniards. Mr. Cleveland points out that the organization of such expeditions, or the furnishing arms therefor, or the aiding in their transportation, is punishable and will be punished under the statutes of the United States. The proclamation is thus an act of mercy towards ignorant persons who are in danger of being misguided by the Cuban agents, and it can hardly fail to have a good effect upon Spanish feeling, as showing that the gratuitous expressions of hostility by Congress will not affect the punctilious discharge of our international obligations by the Administration.

There are two important points which lie at the root of the New York charter question, yet which down to the present moment have received little or no intelligent discussion. The first is, that, as matters now stand, the same body which has power to adopt a charter for Greater New York has power also, except so far as restrained by the Constitution, to amend, alter, or even repeal it the next day. One of the things which make it so difficult to get any good government in the city at present is the constant meddling of the Legislature with the form of government. Only last winter we barely escaped a complete remodelling of the Police Board to satisfy the private ends of Platt, whose relation to the legislative control of New York was much the same as Sheehan's or Croker's would be were Tammany in power. Now the object of a new charter is, in part, to give the public at large the control of city affairs, and to take it away from both machines, Republican as well as Tammany, and this will not be attained by any new form of government which does not take away from the Legislature at Albany all control over the charter. This control of the Legislature, which is in reality the control of a boss, will not be done away by the adoption of a new charter, either by popular or legislative vote. Nothing short of a constitutional amendment forbidding special legislation at Albany with reference to the city will accomplish this. The city of Chicago has been entirely freed from its former legislative incubus by this means, and it is conceded that the change has been followed by just that sort of stimulus to municipal spirit and growth of corporate responsibility and energy which everybody desires so much here.

The other point is, that experience proves that the work of a city like New York is not legislative but administrative in its character; and hence we do not need a local legislature, like the British Parliament or the Congress of the United States. Opening, paving, lighting, cleaning, and watering the streets, taking care of the public money, protecting the city's legal interests, policing it, taking care of the poor, insane, and criminals, putting out and preventing fires, preventing disease, taking care of the parks and docks, are all matters of administrative business affecting the whole city. They have been attended to now for twenty years by administrative bodies called commissions, which have only been hindered and

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interfered with by legislation at Albany. Even the taxes have been successfully raised during this period by a similar board only in part elective. For nearly a generation the whole legislative branch of the city government, which once consisted of two large popularly elected bodies, has withered away and lost its powers by a kind of atrophy because the organs are no longer of any use. To go back now to this antiquated form of government, as Messrs. Dean and De Witt's first charter draft seems to contemplate, would merely be to set on foot again a species of government which experience shows we have outgrown. Their proposed borough boards, for example, are to have local powers over matters which are not local at all, such as streets and avenues, and which are now satisfactorily discharged by the Police Commissioners and the Commissioners of Public Works. Such boards are merely superfluous, resembling in this respect the old school trustees, and could only tend to confusion and corruption.

They have strange ways of administering justice in England. We are supposed to have substantially the same criminal jurisprudence in this country, but if Dr. Jameson and his associates had been put on trial in New York, no one can say how long the trial would have taken, or whether a conviction would not have been upset by the higher courts, and it is very doubtful if a conviction could have been obtained anyway. In the first place, it would probably have taken a month to get a jury. Everybody that had any business of his own would have tried to escape serving, knowing that it would be several weeks, probably, before he would be discharged from his attendance at court. Everybody that manifested any degree of intelligence would have been excluded, and whoever had any clear convictions, as in such a matter as the Jameson raid people who keep informed of the course of events must have, would have been challenged. After a jury entirely free from every suspicion of intelligence and independent judgment had been obtained, the lawyers would have had unlimited opportunities for irrelevant inquiries and magniloquent speeches, and the incompetent jury would have been so thoroughly confused as to be unable to agree on a verdict. The expense of all this would have been enormous, and the law would have been brought into greater contempt. But in England the whole thing is over in less time than it would have taken here to secure a couple of jurymen; and, the court being strongly constituted, there is no reason to expect a pardon. The sentences were certainly light in view of the bloodshed that was occasioned by the raid, but, considering all the influences and sentiments involved, it must be said that the majesty of the law has been vindicated, and that too with most satisfactory promptness.

Mr. Gerald Balfour has had little better luck with his Irish Land bill than his brother Arthur had with the Education bill. The failure in either case has been due mainly to the fact that the legislation attempted was class legislation. The Education bill was shaped to meet the views of the bishops, and the Land bill, for a time, to meet the demands of the landlords. The crux of the bill was that old and familiar crux of all Irish land legislation—the question of tenants' improvements. These seemed to be safeguarded in the first draft of the bill, but suddenly a lot of amendments were put down on the paper by the Irish Secretary, the intent of which was practically to confiscate all tenants' improvements in the fine old Irish way. Then came on a tremendous row, extending to the sacred precincts of the cabinet. T. W. Russell, who had accepted a place in the Government on the distinct agreement with Lord Salisbury that the new Irish Land bill should afford complete protection to tenants' improvements, was bitterly outspoken against these landlords' amendments, and had the quiet but powerful aid of Mr. Chamberlain. The result was such a pressure on the ministry that they incontinently withdrew the very amendments they had put forward. But their vacillation has aroused all sorts of angry suspicions, one of the most generally believed being that the offensive amendments will be tacked on in the House of Lords.

It is not very surprising that the anarchists of Europe should have been tempted to insist on participating in the counsels of the International Congress of Socialists and Trade-Unionists at London. Perhaps their inflammable imaginations were fired with the reports of Gov. Altgeld's remarkable achievement in this country, whereby he captured in a day a great political organization. This international congress was really a gathering of some importance. The number of representatives from Great Britain was large. Some years ago the Socialists succeeded in getting control of the Trade-Union Congress, and although they were shaken off by skilful management, they have maintained a great deal of influence, and apparently represent the sentiments of a pretty large body of workmen. Probably half of the British delegates to the recent congress were elected by socialistic organizations, the other half being direct representatives of trade-unions. The Social Democratic Federation and the Independent Labor party each had more than 100 delegates. The French Labor party sent its representatives; quite a number of the Socialist members of the Chamber of Deputies were there, and many of the Socialist mayors and councillors. From Belgium there came seven representatives of the Society of Socialist University Students, and of course a large contingent was present from Germany. Delegates were in attendance from Austria, Italy, Hungary, Sweden, Denmark, Russia, and even the Balkan States; Australia and the United States being scarcely represented.

The attempt to establish "International Socialism" has encountered so many difficulties of late as to have become almost hopeless. Some of the German Socialists have advanced so far as to prefer the interests of mankind to those of their own country, and at the recent congress at Lille they assured the delegates from France of their disapprobation of the conquest of Alsace and Lorraine. The allusion, however, was too much for the impetuous Gallic temper, and the enlightened Germans were informed that the era of universal brotherhood would be postponed until revenge had been taken for the "crime of 1871." This outbreak of chauvinism naturally has had the effect of causing the Germans to withdraw their fraternal suggestions as premature, and the prospects of "internationalism" are again beclouded. Of course the fierce quarrels at the London congress have contributed to this result, and a tone of discouragement is notable in the Socialistic journals; the gloom being intensified by complaints from all quarters that the funds of the party organizations are running low.

It is somewhat surprising to find a man like Leroy-Beaulieu defending the French annexation of Madagascar on the ground that only in that way can French trade enjoy a monopoly in the island. If a mere protectorate were to be assumed by France, as was at first proposed, the existing favored-nation treaties with England, Germany, and the United States would be still in force. By making Madagascar a French colony outright, however, the slate is sponged clean, and French commerce, under French protective tariffs, given first chance. After losing 7,000 men and spending $30,000,000 in conquering the island, it would be the most exquisite simple-mindedness, argues M. Leroy-Beaulieu, to pursue any other course. Shall Frenchmen labor and then stupidly allow Englishmen and Germans and Americans to enter into their labors? Yet just this exquisite simple-mindedness has always marked English colonial policy, the success of which contrasts favorably with the rather painful results of French colonizing experiments. In an English colony one nation has as good a chance as another, and somehow the plan has worked well. Strangely enough, the more the foreign capital that has been brought in to develop the colonies, the more rapidly they have developed, and the better it has been both for the colony and for England. Colonial monopoly, on the other hand, is as bad in practice as it is in theory.

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MR. REED'S SPEECH.

MR. THOMAS B. REED made the opening speech of the campaign at the town of Alfred, Maine, last week. By "opening speech" we mean the first one made by any man, on either side of politics, that can be considered a thoughtful argument appealing to the human reason, and treating its hearers as men assembled together to consult for the common good and not as mere "hollering" machines. In this respect it forms a happy augury and suggests the campaign of education, about which we hear so much promise and meet with so little performance. It is a long time since we have heard a Republican stump speaker allow that there was any good in the Democratic party. Mr. Reed's discoveries in that line have been rather meagre in former campaigns. It is all the more to his credit that he now recurs to the Democratic support extended to President Lincoln in the war for the Union in such strong terms as these:

"I have said that it would be unwise, unjust, and senseless to confound the Democratic organization with individual Democrats. I have said, also, that that would be flouting a part of our own history, and a glorious part of our history, too. Why, it is within the memory of a third, and perhaps half, of this very audience which listens to me, that when the terrible war of the rebellion burst forth, tens of thousands of Democrats—politicians, strong party men—sprang to their feet, representing hundreds of thousands, aye, millions, and thenceforth and always were part and parcel of the bone and sinew of the victorious republic. What matter if the party had gone wrong? They were right. One man among them, one man alone, by a single sentence gave aid and succor to this Government which outweighed a whole army corps of veterans, musket on shoulder. When Stephen A. Douglas declared, after Sumter was fired on, that 'thenceforth there could be but two parties, patriots and traitors,' he won the respect even of foes and an imperishable place in history. We shall certainly welcome all such men to-day—not that they are to be Republicans, for they will not be, but because they are patriots, for that they must be."

Mr. Reed's references to the tariff question were not in any sense offensive to those who consider protective tariffs a delusion. All persons recognize the fact that if the Bryan ticket is to be beaten in this campaign, it must be beaten mainly by Republican votes, and that the kind of campaign necessary to hold those votes together and make them conducive to success must be made. The Republican leaders ought to know best what kind of campaign is needed to secure this part of the common result. We think that Mr. Reed has hit the mark pretty well in putting the tariff first in the order of his discourse, but making it second in the amount of time bestowed upon it. At least two-thirds of his speech was on the money question, and here he was very strong.

He plunged *in medias res* by showing the effect of a cheap dollar on the wages of laboring men. This, as we have heretofore pointed out, is the keynote of the campaign. "Wages," said Mr. Reed, "in greenback times, did not go up as other things did. They went part way, but not all the way up, and were very slow about that." This is the exact truth. Every experiment with depreciated currency in our history—and there have been many such in colonial as well as later periods—has had that invariable result. The prices of commodities have risen at once because there was no resistance to a rise. Indeed, they have generally risen in anticipation, before there was any actual need of a rise. They have done so because people knew beforehand that there must be a rise, and have bought on speculation to get the advantage of it. But there is always resistance to a rise of wages. The rate of wages is a matter of agreement between two persons or two classes. Wages are never advanced merely because the workman's expenses have increased. Other considerations come in, and principally the employer's ability to pay an increased rate. Now it almost always happens that a depreciation of the currency, instead of making business better, and thus enabling the employer to pay more, makes business worse because investors are alarmed. They either hoard their money or send it out of the country. This is generally the first consequence, so that the advance in prices of commodities is accompanied by a loss of employment for a certain number of laborers at the outset. What the wage-earner has to look forward to, as an immediate result, if the silverite policy is adopted, is a 53-cent dollar at the pay-table in place of the 100 cents he now gets, and an increased price of the goods he buys. What will happen afterwards is a matter of conjecture. Our conjecture is that the next step will be a paper dollar more depreciated than the silver one, and that there will be no end short of the fate that overtook the Confederate currency and the Continental currency and the assignats of the French Revolution. This is what the Populists want now. What they want to-day the Populist-Democracy or Popocracy will want to-morrow, because it is only on such terms that the two wings can be held together, and in fact the difference between them in this matter is a difference of degree and not of kind.

We cannot point out all the excellences of Mr. Reed's speech. One effect it will have most undoubtedly: it will confirm the intentions of those sound-money Democrats who are inclined to vote the Republican ticket this year. Those who cannot do so will be equally confirmed in the purpose to support a third ticket. It would be possible for a man in Mr. Reed's position to make himself and his party offensive and thus send votes back to Bryan and close up the ranks. The tone which he has adopted ought to be the tone of the Republican campaign throughout. If it is so, the happiest results may be expected. The sound-money Democrats will go their own way, but none of them will be goaded to the support of Bryan by reason of anything done or said by the Republicans.

SECRETARY CARLISLE'S LETTER.

SECRETARY CARLISLE has written a letter to F. W. Alsop of Little Rock, Ark., on the effect which the free coinage of silver would have on policies of life insurance, and incidentally on all money payments whatsoever. The letter was written officially in response to a request for information regarding the powers and duties of the Government. President Greene of the Connecticut Life Insurance Co. had written a statement, which had been widely published, saying that if the policy of free coinage of silver were adopted, his company would be compelled to pay its policies in silver dollars worth only a little more than fifty cents each. Mr. Alsop cut out this statement, sent it to Secretary Carlisle, and asked whether this were true. The Secretary replied that it was true, because the insurance companies and all other institutions would continue to make their payments by drawing checks on the banks; and that under free coinage "the whole volume of our currency would sink at once to the silver basis, and these checks and drafts would be paid in silver dollars or their equivalent, instead of gold or its equivalent, as is now the case." Here the Secretary might have stopped, as he had answered the specific question put to him, but he went on and gave some explanations that are particularly needed at the present time. Already in this campaign it has been made abundantly manifest that a great many people think that the Government would "stand behind" the silver dollar and keep it at par with gold if a free-coinage law were passed, just as it does now. One of the hardest things to make people understand is that the Government could not possibly do such a thing. The strongest Government in the world could not do it, since it would be no less a task than to give a full dollar for every 53 cents' worth of silver in the whole world, including all that is worn for ornament in India or sold as sycee bars in China, and all that may be mined hereafter. The Government is able to keep at par the silver dollars heretofore coined for its own account, because the number of them is limited to about the amount that will circulate from hand to hand. If the amount were materially increased, it could not do so. If it were indefinitely increased, they would fall to the value of the bullion contained in them.

"I presume," says Mr. Carlisle, "no one supposes for a moment that it would be the duty of the Government to attempt to keep the standard silver dollar, coined free for private individuals and corporations, equal in value to a gold dollar—or, in other words, that it would be the duty of the Government to attempt, under a system of free coinage, to maintain the parity of the two metals. The dollars would be coined on private account and delivered to private individuals and corporations as their own property, the Government having no interest whatever in them, and being, therefore, under no obligation to sustain them by guaranteeing their value."

Mr. Carlisle might have said much less

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than this while fully answering the question put to him. The fact that he went into explanations somewhat lengthy indicates, at all events, that he is not going to support Bryan and Sewall in the campaign, for he could not deliberately advocate a policy which, as he shows, would result in cheating widows and orphans out of nearly one-half of the money laid up for their benefit by the toil and savings of their deceased husbands and fathers.

Why could not the insurance companies pay as good money as they have received in the past? Simply because what they have received in the past they have already paid, minus what they have accumulated as surplus. Their past claims have been paid with their past receipts. Future ones must be paid with their future receipts. No company or person can pay out 100 cents where he receives 53 and continue long in business. If we should see any merchant doing so now, we should know that his name would soon adorn the list of bankruptcies. It would be possible for the companies to issue gold policies thereafter on condition that the premiums should be paid in gold, and by making their loans and other investments specifically on the gold basis. This would be possible under present laws, but we cannot overlook the fact that both of the platforms on which Mr. Bryan is running for President call for the passage of laws by Congress to prevent people from making gold contracts. Any other kind of a contract may be made, and the law will enforce it—contracts for stone, iron, whiskey, or dynamite—but a contract for the one article which constitutes the money of civilized mankind, including ourselves, must not be tolerated if the Popocracy carry the election.

It is needless to say that all principles governing life-insurance policies govern all other financial institutions—fire, marine, and accident companies, trust companies, savings banks, national banks, and the whole list. These are your true debtor class. These are the concerns that owe the largest sums of money to the people of the United States. They represent fully one hundred times as much debt as all the farm mortgages in the country. Why are they not usually classed as debtors? The fact that they are debtors is notorious, and is acknowledged by every one who bestows any thought on the subject. The reason why they are not so classed must be because they are in the habit of paying their debts promptly. The popular conception of a debtor, or at all events the Populist conception, is one who does not pay promptly. The ideal debtor is one who does not pay at all. It is for the benefit of this interesting class that all the business of the country is to be turned upside down.

THE SOUTH IN THE NEW WARFARE.

It is not without significance that the defenders of our national honor find themselves confronted with a "solid South." The Southern States for many years practically controlled the policy of the general Government. Seeing the control passing away from their hands, they attempted to dissolve the Union, and since the failure of that attempt they have been powerless to a humiliating degree. The bitter memories of the civil war made it impolitic to nominate Southerners for high national office, or for Southerners to make themselves prominent in support of any policy. They had to play the part of repentant prodigals, who may be welcomed back to the family circle, but who are expected to maintain a submissive and unobtrusive behavior. They were miserably poor, but they had to support the pension acts of Congress, which taxed the South practically for the exclusive benefit of the North. At any aggressive action of theirs they were liable to be called rebels and traitors, and altogether their political leaders were compelled to pick their way with the utmost caution.

So long as the old aristocracy of the South maintained its traditional authority this policy was skilfully carried out. But this aristocracy was doomed by the loss of its slaves, which involved the loss of its land. As Tocqueville says, there is no real aristocracy but a landed aristocracy. Only land secures at the same time prestige and loyalty, and the great families of the South were gradually dissolved among the people. So far as they were educated and intellectually gifted, their members had influence; but the "poor whites" could not indefinitely tolerate the assertion of a superiority which had no more substantial basis to rest upon than the traditions of a former generation. They revolted, and during the last few years the Southern States have sent to Congress many representatives of a very degraded type — men like Tillman and Watson, whose intemperance of language shows their ignorance of the very elements of statecraft. It is hardly necessary to add that the illegal practices connected with the suppression of the negro vote were not of a nature to develop statesmanship of the purest order.

The mischief of this result is now clearly apparent. So long as the policy of the "solid South" was directed by statesmen, the country was in no danger from the fact that the vote of a large section was controlled by one party. There was sufficient wisdom among the leaders of that party, whose principles were on the whole sound and conservative, to prevent any distinctly sectional legislation. But with the disappearance of the old-fashioned Southern statesmen the management of the party became more difficult. Mr. Cleveland succeeded for a while, and to a certain extent, but the demagogues, knowing that they were the people, and that wisdom would die with them, finally revolted. They have overborne by numbers and clamor the counsels of the former leaders, and, intoxicated with apparent success and the hope of power, have unfolded a political programme worthy of the French Convention of 1793.

In the remarkable letter written by Mr. Cleveland to Justice Lamar in 1892, which has just been published, this situation was clearly predicted.

> "Forces are at work," he wrote, "which certainly mean the complete turning-back of the hands on the dial of Democracy, and the destruction of party hopes. . . . Our Southern friends, if they persist, will be left alone with their free-coinage heresy. The danger is that another Southern idea and a charge of heedlessness for the public safety on the financial question will do service in the place of the memories of the civil war."

That danger has not been escaped, and we once more behold the Southern States assuming an air of hostility to the civilization of the North. Our institutions are based upon the idea of freedom of contract, and we are threatened with laws prohibiting contracts payable in anything but what Congress shall from time to time declare legal tender. Our wealth has been developed by the just and generous remuneration of labor by capital; and in the section where formerly laborers were slaves, and where they are now scarcely free citizens, a policy is proclaimed which would injure every laborer in the land.

A still more remarkable warning was long since uttered by a sagacious man, Samuel J. Tilden, to which attention was called last week by a correspondent of the New York *Times*. In a conversation, the date of which is unfortunately not given, with a gentleman from one of the seceding States, the latter remarked that the Democratic party appeared to be permanently disabled. Mr. Tilden replied:

> "It seems to be broken down at present, and it is broken down; but it will come up again, and will once more gain control of the Government. But this situation will not be permanent. In order to come into power the Democracy must have the support and assistance of the Southern States, and that support and assistance may very soon prove to be its ruin. The Southern States will insist upon ruling the Democracy utterly, and, being poor, they will try to foist into the Democratic programme ideas and measures contrary to all Democratic principles. Against this the whole country will protest. The United States will never consent to be governed by the South or by such Southern ideas. The Democracy will be voted down, and then its last situation will be worse than the first."

It is true. The Southern States have insisted on ruling the Democracy utterly, and because they are poor they have attempted to commit the Democratic party to the principles of communism. This so-called Democracy will be voted down; but it will be voted down by a combination of the honest and conservative men of both parties, who, after agreeing to sink their political differences in their devotion to the welfare of their country, may find that, after all, there are practically no differences to sink, and that the establishment of the national finances

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and the money of the people on a firm and permanent basis will constitute a party platform broad enough for all genuine patriots to stand on.

THE QUESTION OF HONESTY.

MUCH has been said of the danger of applying unpleasant epithets to such of our fellow-citizens of the West and South as favor the free coinage of silver. We are warned that they are perfectly sincere in their convictions, that they are to a large extent moral, law-abiding, and God-fearing people. When such persons are called anarchists and repudiators, they are naturally indignant. Conscious of the purity of their motives, they repel the charge of dishonesty, and vituperation only intensifies their devotion to their cause. They are sustained by an overwhelming public sentiment in their own regions, and to question the virtue of their financial policy is like questioning the truth of their religion. Some doubt may therefore be felt concerning the hopefulness of converting such firm believers from what we consider the error of their ways, but even if converts are to be made only from the ranks of the undecided, it is undeniable that the true way is to appeal to reason rather than prejudice. If the free coinage of silver will lead to repudiation, it is better to show just what it will lead to, and to let the hearer characterize the result for himself. If it is a dishonest policy, let it be thoroughly explained and understood; and if, when clearly understood, men will calmly and rationally maintain that they see nothing dishonest in it, it is vain to denounce them. The question would become a mere dispute concerning the meaning of words.

Let us strip the matter of all technical and perplexing details. Let us narrow it down to the closest and clearest issue. Let us dismiss all other questions, and ask simply, "Will it be an honest thing for Mr. Bryan to pay the notes and bonds of the Government in silver?" That is the issue in a nutshell. Mr. Bryan is committed to doing this thing. It is immaterial that the principal of the bonds is not now payable; the money that is used to pay the interest will fix the value of the principal. Whoever votes for Mr. Bryan, votes beyond question for this policy, and he cannot claim to be an honest man unless he holds this to be an honest policy. We do not see how any one can conscientiously hold such a view, and we shall state what it implies in a few simple words.

The silver dollars under free coinage will not be worth so much as the gold dollars. They will not buy so much bread, or fuel, or clothing, or pay so much rent. There is no disagreement about this. Those who want silver coinage say distinctly that they want it because it will make prices higher—that is, because silver dollars when coined freely will not purchase so much as the gold dollars. That is the reason why they want free silver, and that is the reason why their opponents do not want it. If prices were not going to rise under free coinage, no one would care whether we had it or not. So much, then, is beyond dispute: with free coinage, prices would rise—that is, the dollars that we should have would not buy so much as those we have now.

Let us now, for the sake of simplicity, suppose that the bonds of the Government are all held by the savings banks. No doubt many of them are held by other banks, trust companies, fire and life insurance companies, and by individuals. But let us keep to the case of the savings banks alone. For nearly twenty years all our dollars have been as good as gold dollars. Every one who had a silver or a paper dollar could get the value of a gold dollar at any time, and debts due to people in other countries could practically be settled with our dollars at a par with gold. During this time the savings now held by the banks must all have been paid into them; if there are any accounts of longer standing than this, they have been drawn down and replenished within that period. Hence it is true that all the dollars of deposits now in these banks have been paid in gold dollars, or in dollars equal in buying power to gold dollars. And all the Government bonds bought with these deposits have therefore been bought and paid for with gold dollars, or with dollars equal to gold dollars. Moreover, the people who, through these banks, converted their savings into Government bonds, supposed that these bonds were to be paid in gold. Such bonds always have been paid in gold, or in dollars convertible into gold, whenever they have been paid, and the interest has always been paid in gold or its equivalent. And this interest was so paid when the Government had practically to buy the gold to do it, and when the war taxes were higher than now, and when there were not so many people in the country as now, and when the people were not so well off as they are now. There was some talk at one time of paying the interest in paper, but it was shown that this would be a breach of good faith, and the people voted it down.

Now, what Mr. Bryan proposes to do is to pay off the people who lent gold dollars to the Government through the savings banks in silver dollars; to give them back dollars that will not buy so much as the dollars they lent. Perhaps prices have fallen since 1873. But these savings, setting off the withdrawals against new deposits, have all been made within a few years, and gold has not risen perceptibly in value in that time. And during recent years the Government has paid off its old bonds and issued new ones bearing very much lower interest, so that the savings-bank depositors have lent their money to the Government with less gain to themselves than before, even if gold has risen in value. On the other hand, the silver dollars will be worth very much less than the gold dollars. The silver in one of them if melted would sell for only 53 cents in gold just now, and would probably be worth not much more if silver dollars were coined freely. Suppose it would sell for 60 cents; then every one who had bought a Government bond, paying for it 100 gold dollars, would be paid off in 100 silver dollars, which would be worth 60 gold dollars. The savings, therefore, would buy perhaps three loaves of bread when they would have bought five if the Government had paid back what it borrowed, three tons of coal instead of five, three months' rent instead of five, etc., etc.

The people who put their dollars in the savings banks, and in that way in the bonds of the Government, are for the most part plain people, workingmen, domestic servants, teachers, and old people, who have never thought about bimetallism, or the act of 1873, or the appreciation of gold. Least of all have they thought that their Government would commit a breach of faith. The proverb "Good as a Government bond" expresses their simple confidence, and probably most of them have no idea now what Mr. Bryan proposes to do or how it will affect them. But the believers in free coinage know what he is going to do, and if they say that what he is going to do is honest, they must offer some explanation of its effects as described above. They must convince the people who have put their money in the savings banks that it is right and just that they should get back what is worth little more than half what they put in, in full satisfaction of their claims. This matter has got to be explained, and not slurred over, if Mr. Bryan expects to make converts in this part of the country, and if it is ignored, it will be treated as a confession of dishonesty.

A PATRIOTIC DEED.

THE conduct of the bankers in parting with gold for the purpose of maintaining the credit of our Government has occasioned some embarrassment to those who are in the habit of denouncing the "money power," "selfish wealth," "corporate greed," and other abstractions. These critics have been unable to deny that the proceedings had a generous and patriotic look; that the bankers really gave gold in exchange for promises to pay "dollars" which may possibly in a few months be worth much less than gold. They have, however, hastened to point out that the unselfishness of the act may have been more apparent than real; that it is greatly to the advantage of the bankers that the solvency of the Government should be maintained; and that really their action was forced on them by self-interest.

We do not question the justice of these

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considerations. The interest of the bankers we know to be promoted by the maintenance of the financial honor of our country. We regard it as bound up with the prosperity of business men in general, with the welfare of merchants and manufacturers and farmers, and with that of all the workmen employed by these classes. When the bankers make a sacrifice such as they have made they are benefiting all their fellow-citizens, and in that way benefiting themselves. But we may be allowed to point out that self-sacrifice is very apt to have precisely this tendency. Soldiers are frequently called upon to breast the attack of the enemy, knowing at the time that, unless they expose their own lives without flinching, such demoralization will take place among their comrades as will result in universal slaughter. Sailors run the greatest risks, knowing that if they shrink from them they will be drowned as well as the passengers. Doctors expose themselves to contagion, knowing that if they let pestilence spread they may become its victims. The world is so constituted that brave and benevolent and patriotic acts have a tendency, directly or indirectly, to benefit those who do them as well as those for whom they are performed, and it seems ungracious to stint our praise because we are not quite sure that we behold the exhibition of purely altruistic motives.

We are, however, aware that some of our contemporaries are occasionally troubled with the suspicion that we are the advocates—possibly the paid advocates—of "plutocracy," and that whatever we may say in praise of the present or any other action of bankers will be attributed by them to unworthy motives. This might not materially restrain us did we not think that sensible people appreciate the conduct of the bankers as it deserves. Their action is the talk of the world, and it requires no commendation of ours.

Not so, however, with the action of a humble citizen reported in the *Sun* of the 25th inst., the story of which we reproduce. Michael Murphy is an elderly man, a native of Ireland, who has been an American citizen for fifteen years. During that time he has saved from his wages the sum of $820, which he has kept in gold coin. Last Friday he went to the sub-treasury and exchanged his gold for Government notes, making a plain statement of the reasons for this proceeding. He declared that this country had been good to him, "as it is the friend of every laboring man." He declared that he loved its institutions and its freedom, which were in danger because of a class of men who would ruin its credit and reduce the dollar in which wages are paid to nearly 50 cents if they had their way.

"Since this agitation of the currency question has begun," he continued, "it has scared a great many people, but all I have I owe to my country. Therefore I desire to show my confidence in the Government and in the good people of this country by depositing in the sub-treasury all of my earnings which I have accumulated, amounting to $820 in gold, during the fifteen years I have been here, to sustain the credit of the Government during this perilous time. While the Government issues all kinds of currency—silver notes, Treasury notes—I know that the bullion in the silver is worth about 53 cents, and I also know that by keeping the reserve of gold in the Treasury the Government will be enabled to maintain all the dollars it issues at par with gold. I therefore desire to make this offering to the Treasury, and thereby show my appreciation of the Government so free and so beneficent to me."

Cynical observers may be inclined to suggest that a deposit of gold of this magnitude would not go far to replenish the gold reserve. Neither did the widow's mite go far to fill up the poor-chest in the Temple; and yet perhaps the mere story of that mite has brought forth more abundant contributions to charity than any other influence. Prudent men might have advised Mr. Murphy to keep his gold and make sure of having something to live on in his old age. But Mr. Murphy cared less for such security than he did to show his confidence "in the good people of this country." And in our opinion the good people of this country owe Mr. Murphy a considerable debt of gratitude. It is to men in his position that we must look to save the country from ruin. Never more than at the present crisis does our fate depend on the good sense and the patriotic feeling of the common people. It is very well to point out where the interests of people lie in the present contest; but we should be glad to see higher considerations more generally appealed to. Mr. Murphy has made such an appeal and we honor him for it. He is more creditable to the land of his adoption than many who were born citizens. He appreciates what our freedom and our institutions have done for workingmen, and he stands ready to sacrifice his savings in defence of liberty and good faith. His action will cheer many despondent hearts, and we rejoice to believe that it represents a spirit among the masses of the people that will display itself on a grand scale as soon as the nature of the present crisis is clearly understood.

HENRY CLAY AND HIS FRIENDS.

NEW YORK, July 27, 1896.

THERE has come into my possession an unpublished letter of Henry Clay's, addressed to the late Robert S. Hamilton of this State. This letter was written shortly after the failure of the attempt, in which Mr. Clay was so deeply interested, to change the Constitution of Kentucky so as to provide for the gradual abolition of slavery in that State. In January of that year, 1849, he addressed a letter on the same subject to Richard Pindell, which is published in part in Schurz's Life of Clay. The Hamilton letter differs somewhat from that, and from anything else of Mr. Clay's which I have seen, in the peacefully philosophical view which it takes of the certainty of the extinction of slavery through natural causes. The next to the last paragraph of the letter reads now as a prophecy of the civil war, which is foretold as inevitable unless some intelligent means should be found to take hold of the institution of slavery and dispose of it cautiously and safely. It will be remembered that Mr. Clay was reëlected to the United States Senate in that year, 1849, in spite of the fact that he was diametrically opposed to the general sentiment of his State on the question of slavery, and although he had some time before announced his intention of withdrawing into private life, and had for a time put that intention into execution.

ASHLAND 2nd Oct, 1849.

DEAR SIR,—

I have received and thank you for "The Scheme of African Colonization," presented by you in a Discourse delivered at Xenia in July last, which I have perused with much satisfaction. It is distinguished by eloquence, public spirit and ability, and I think most of the principles which it developes and enforces are founded in truth.

After the recent failure to establish a system of gradual emancipation in Kentucky, I confess that I have not much hope that Slavery will ever be extinguished in any of the States, by legal enactment, at least for a long time to come. That failure may be attributed to the violent and indiscreet course of Ultra abolitionists in the North, to the great amount of property invested in Slaves, and to the repugnance with which a People change long established habits.

There remains in prospect the other mode, the natural extinction of slavery, treated by you. Whenever the rearing and maintenance of slaves become unprofitable, as it will be, when there is a certainty of the supply of cheaper free labor than Slave labor, the institution of slavery will decline and finally terminate. That may happen, either by the increase of the colored population, or by the increase of the white population of the U. States, or, as is most probable, by the increase of both.

You have considered the subject in the form of demand and supply of labor. That is a modification, with some variation, of Malthus's principle of population, founded on the quantity of human food or subsistence.

In December 1829 before the Colonization Society of K. I pronounced a discourse, in which I treated of the natural termination of Slavery founded on the reduction of the wages of labor. I am sorry that I have not a copy of it by me to send you. It was published in Niles's Register, in the African Repository and in other periodicals. If you can lay your hands upon it, you will be struck with the coincidence in our views, although we express ourselves in different terms.

It is a consoling reflection that, altho a system of gradual emancipation cannot be established, Slavery is destined inevitably to extinction, by the operation of peaceful and natural causes. And it is also gratifying to believe, that there will not be probably much difference in the period of its existence, whether it terminates legally or naturally. The chief difference in the two modes is that, according to the first, we should take hold of the Institution intelligently and dispose of it cautiously and safely, whilst according to the other it will some day or other take hold of us, and constrain us, in some manner or other, to get rid of it.

I apprehend that you are mistaken in supposing that the greater ratio of increase, in the colored race between 1800 and 1810 than in other decimal periods, was owing to the importation of slaves from Africa. It was owing to the acquisition of Louisiana, whose slaves were enumerated in the census of 1810.

With great respect
I am Your obᵉ. Servᵗ,
H. CLAY.

Robert S. Hamilton, Esq.

I have also in my possession a narrative of the life of Mr. Clay's intimate friend and correspondent, Judge Francis T. Brooke of Fredericksburg, Virginia, composed by Judge Brooke himself, and printed for circulation in his own family only. A considerable number of the published letters of Henry Clay contained in Colton's Life of Clay, as well as in Schurz's more recent Life, were addressed to Judge Brooke or to his brother Robert Brooke,

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once Governor of Virginia. The originals of these letters were in the Brooke homestead, St. Julian, seven miles from Fredericksburg, when the Union army occupied the latter place. The house itself was not destroyed in any of the various battles in and about the town, but it was thoroughly rifled. All the books in the library were carried away, and it is possible that Henry Clay's letters to Judge Brooke were carried off at the same time and are still in existence somewhere. It is equally possible that they were burned as waste paper. Henry Clay studied law in the office of Gov. Brooke, Judge Brooke's elder brother, and was Judge Brooke's most intimate friend He always maintained an active correspondence as well with Judge Brooke as with his brother, Gov. Brooke. Judge Brooke's narrative has nothing at all to do with Mr. Clay, but it is very interesting in itself on account of the notices therein contained of various famous men of the first days of the republic, with whom Judge Brooke was intimately acquainted.

He devotes the following paragraph to George Washington:

"I personally knew, (as well as so young a man could know,) all the eminent military characters of the Revolution, with the exception of Alexander Hamilton and General Knox. I knew Washington, Green and Gates—I knew Washington in my boyhood. He came to Smithfield with General Spotswood, in 1773, I think it was. He was then a Colonel in the British army. I remember his dress; he wore a deep blue coat, a scarlet waistcoat, trimmed with a gold chain, and buckskin small clothes, boots, spurs, and sword; he had with him a beautiful greyhound, was fond of the sports of the field, and proposed to my father, who had a tame deer, to try if the greyhound could not catch him; to which my father assented, and after leaping over the yard palings they went through the garden where they leaped the palings again; when the deer turned towards the river, he got a start of the greyhound, and got into the river before he could catch him. General Washington was afterwards at Smithfield two or three times; he was fond of horses, my father had some excellent ones, so had Gen. Spotswood; they took the horses to the road, and mounted the boys upon them, to try their speed. General Washington, in the year 1774, came to Fredericksburg to review the independent companies. After the review, they gave him a collation in the old market-house, where he had all the boys of a large grammar school, of which I was one, brought to him; gave them a drink of punch, patted them upon their heads, and asked them if they could fight for their country. After the war he frequently came to Fredericksburg, where his mother resided, and his only sister, Mrs. Lewis. He attended the ball of the 22nd of February, opened it by dancing a minuet with some lady, then danced cotillons and country dances; was very gallant, and always attached himself, by his attentions, to some one or more of the most beautiful and attractive ladies at the balls. The next day, his friends gave him a dinner, at which, after the cloth was removed, and the wine came on, a Mr. Jack Stewart (who had been Clerk of the House of Delegates), a great vocalist, was called upon for a song; and he sung one from the novel of 'Roderick Random,' which was a very amusing one. Gen. Washington laughed at it very much, and encored it. The next day, when I went to his sister's to introduce strangers to him, I found him one of the most dignified men of the age. While he was President of the United States, at the instance of my father-in-law, General Spotswood, he offered me the collector's office, at Tappahannock, but I preferred my profession, and declined it; though the office at that time was a very lucrative one. Washington was undoubtedly a great man, and there was a sublimity in his greatness, which exceeded that of any of the great men of ancient or modern history."

Fancy the outcry if the present incumbent of the Presidential chair were to do what the Father of his Country is here reported to have done—treat all the boys of one of our large grammar schools to a drink of punch!

In view of the present interest in the Monroe Doctrine, the following statement, made by Calhoun to Judge Brooke with regard to the responsibility for the authorship of that doctrine, possesses considerable interest:

"I knew Mr. Monroe, practised law with him, and I think, though a slow man, he possessed a strong mind and excellent judgment. When I was at York, in 1824, with General La Fayette, Mr. Calhoun, then Secretary of War, was there, and I asked him the question, whether it was the President Monroe, or his Cabinet, who were in favor of that passage in his message which declared to the Holy Alliance, that America would not be indifferent to any attempt to aid the Spanish Government to prevent the enfranchisement of the South American Provinces, then at war with Spain; and he replied, that it was the President's own sentiment, and that though he was a slow man, yet give him time, and he was a man of the best judgment he had ever known."

Of Mr. Jefferson and Mr. Madison he says:

"I knew Mr. Jefferson very well. The first time I saw him was at the magazine, at Westham, above Richmond, as I have mentioned before. I was afterwards often at Monticello, and saw much of him there; and while he was President of the U. States. He was a man of easy and ingratiating manners; he was very partial to me, and I corresponded with him while I was Vice-President of the Society of Cincinnati; he wished the funds of that Society to be appropriated to his central college, near Charlottesville, and on one occasion I obtained an order from a meeting of the Society, to that effect; but in my absence the order was rescinded, and the funds appropriated to the Washington College, at Lexington, to which General Washington gave his shares in the James River Company, which the State had presented him with. Mr. Jefferson never would discuss any proposition if you differed with him, for he said he thought discussion rather rivetted opinions than changed them. When I was elected Speaker of the Senate of Virginia, he sent me his parliamentary Manual, with a very flattering note wafered in it, which is now in the possession of my son, Robert. Of Mr. Madison, I personally did not know as much; his manners were not so fine or insinuating as Mr Jefferson's; he was devoted to Mr. Jefferson, but differed with him in some respects; he never shunned discussion, but courted it—told many excellent anecdotes of times past—and was among the purest and ablest statesmen we ever had."

Following out the implied advice of Washington to the boys of the grammar school to whom he had given the drink of punch, Judge Brooke entered the Revolutionary army at the earliest possible age. He was appointed lieutenant in Gen. Harrison's regiment of artillery at the age of sixteen, in the year 1780. He fought under LaFayette during the invasion of Lord Cornwallis in 1781, and gives a most interesting account of the campaigns in Virginia and the South during that and the succeeding years, in which he took an active part. A note in his diary with regard to the depreciated currency of the time is interesting in view of the proposition of the Populists to bring back similar conditions by introducing fiat money:

"The troops at Cumberland old Court House, were at length ordered to join Gen. Green, under Col. Posey. Having received no pay, they mutinied, and instead of coming on the parade with their knapsacks, when the general beat, they came with their arms, as to the beat of the troop. A sergeant named Hagarltoy was run through the body by Capt. Shelton, and Col Febiger ordered the barracks to be set on fire, and we marched about eight miles in the evening. I have said the troops received no pay; one company of them, commanded by Alex. Parker, had been taken prisoners in Charlestown, and had been very lately exchanged, when it received orders to return to the South; the officers received one month's pay in paper, which was so depreciated that I received, as a first Lieutenant of artillery, thirty-three thousand and two-thirds of a thousand dollars, in lieu of thirty-three and two-thirds dollars in specie; with which I bought cloth for a coat at $2,000 a yard, and $1,500 for the buttons. Nothing but the spirit of the age would have induced any one to receive money so depreciated; but we were willing to take any thing our country could give."

Judge Brooke married as his first wife the "eldest daughter of Gen. Spotswood and Mrs. Spotswood, the only whole niece of Gen. Washington."

JOHN P. PETERS.

THE FIRST ACT OF SOCIAL JUSTICE TO SICILY.

ITALY, July 13, 1896.

BY a majority of ninety-three votes the ministry has carried through the House the bill for the legalization of a civil Commissary for Sicily, despite the organized opposition of all the political opponents of the ministry, and, sad to say, of most of the Sicilian Deputies. In my letter on social regeneration in Italy the duties of the Commissary were defined and the reasons for the remedial measures shown; but as the project has been considerably modified by the commission selected by the offices to report on the bill, and as we have before us the report of the majority of five who approve, of the minority of four who disapprove, with all the reasons pro and con given during the debate, it is interesting to note the causes and reasons that have led up to the final victory.

The reasons given by the opponents of the measure are summed up by Deputy Spirito, reporter for the minority of the commission. They affirm that the institution of a civil Commissary for all the provinces of Sicily will revive the regional hopes and sentiments of Separatists, offend the unitarian sentiment of the population, and weaken and strain the moral, political, and administrative ties which bind those provinces to the rest of the nation. They admit that Minghetti's regional system proposed in 1861 was similar, but argue that while it would have given a governor to every region in Italy, Rudini allows one to Sicily alone. They oppose it also as an exceptional measure, implying that the laws of the whole land are insufficient for a portion. They admit the necessity of exceptional laws and measures, such as states of siege and military tribunals, for the restoration of public security and order, but find it impossible to justify exceptional, temporary, and local laws of a purely civil, political, and administrative nature. Affirming that the evils under which Sicily groans are due to agricultural and industrial crises, and to superfluous expenditure, as a remedy they suggest waiting patiently until the natural force of great commercial currents shall resolve the crisis in the wine, sulphur, and fruit markets, while institutions of credit, public works, etc., shall correct administrative disorders. They demand decentralization for the entire kingdom; for Sicily they consider that better civil servants, and especially better prefects, would completely suffice. They object to the subordination of the seven prefects of the isle to this Royal Commissary. "The long and short of it is," writes Spirito, "that the Government has chosen to create a new and high

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political office in order to be prepared for all possible eventualities of general elections."

These are the principal objections of the opponents specified and elaborated by the ten orators who presented ten separate, hostile orders of the day. We come now to the report of the majority, drawn up by Deputy Franchetti, whom you will remember as the author, with Sonnino, of the two exhaustive volumes on the social, economical, and political position of Sicily in 1875, and later as the organizer of the agricultural colony in Eritrea, which, had it been organized in Sicily, might have had more lasting and beneficial results. He admits that the general conditions, from an administrative point of view, are unsatisfactory throughout Italy, and seems really to share the opinion of your correspondent "X." in his intensive and extensive application of the word *Camorra;* but he affirms that in no portion of the new kingdom have the multiform grievances weighed so heavily or produced such disastrous consequences as in Sicily during the last six and thirty years. So far from attributing the disorders to the Fasci or Socialistic propaganda, Franchetti says, "Probably not one of those who were condemned by the military tribunals was born when the same sentiments in a different form provoked the popular tumults which convulsed the island in 1860—tumults, alas! all alike inspired by the sentiment, so bitterly profound among the agrarian plebs, of wrongs suffered too long without any hope of redress; wrongs inflicted by those who, placed over them and living in their midst, administered the provinces, the municipalities, the communal lands; who disposed, in short, of land and of labor, and who also imposed the taxes." Franchetti demonstrates the enormous excess, in Sicily, of the taxes on food over the land tax as compared with the other provinces of Italy; the enormity of the poll or hearth-tax; the concentration of all public offices in the hands of the *clientele* or rings; the creation of new and useless offices by them for themselves; the usurpation, by these factions, of lands belonging to the commune—of lands belonging by right, by law, and by recent adjudication to the poor of each commune.

In order to break the bonds which have leagued together many of these local administrations, it is deemed necessary to impart a uniform impulse to all. Hitherto all the worst civil servants, prefects on trial, prefects in punishment, or prefects awaiting promotion, have been drafted off to Sicily, and there become subjects of the local rings and subservient to the orders of the central Government, which, especially on the eve of elections, has found itself compelled to yield to all their demands and satisfy all their exactions. In sending one man invested with the title of minister to investigate, to suspend (not dismiss) public servants, to examine the budgets, the local taxes, and especially their incidence—a man who cannot be influenced by local factions—it is hoped that the ring of illegitimate influences and abuses will be broken. One other important function is to examine the administration of the charitable institutions, to compel the obstinate administrators to send in their balance sheets; to execute the existing law concerning the division of the communal lands among the people to whom they belong. The Commissary must reorganize public security, receive the reports of the prefects, and add his comments before transmitting them to the Minister of the Interior.

The following is the order of the day presented finally by the commission:

"The House, considering the mission of the Royal Commissioner for Sicily indispensable to remedy the chief grievances that afflict the island, and to render possible the alleviation of others, invite the Government to prepare, during the present year, a law for the regulation throughout Italy of agrarian contracts, based on the studies already made, in order to prevent unjust and usurious contracts which are injurious to the tillers of the soil; secondly, to initiate a large experiment in internal colonization under the form of concessions on the part of the State to the peasants, as freehold or on long leases, subsidized by the advance of capital sufficient for the preliminary expenses—such lands to be cultivated exclusively by the peasants with the assistance of their own families."

The discussion lasted six days. All the speeches delivered were monotonous. The only ones worthy of note were those of Fortunato, a well-known patriot and writer of Calabria, and Filippo Turati, the scientific expounder of collective Socialism, editor of the *Critica Sociale*, elected by an immense majority last month at Milan, despite a formidable coalition of all parties. Fortunato said that he should vote for the commission's order of the day, and for all the measures proposed by the Minister of Agriculture, though he was aware that all remedies would be useless until the system of protection and privilege was abandoned and an end was put to international adventures. Italy must establish an honest budget in which income and expenditure shall be really balanced. A rigid inspection and control of local taxation and expenditure would prevent ulterior spoliation of the rural classes. On these lines in a few years the Government would be able to resolve the economical problem throughout the whole of Italy. Turati regarded the question from a political point of view, opposing the Ministry because the amnesty granted was partial and insufficient, because the iniquitious deportation of hundreds of innocent men remains unrevoked, and because the present Government persecutes the press and denies the right of public associations and pacific propaganda, with the same zeal as former governments.

The President of the Council, Minister of the Interior, Marchese Rudini, who had listened attentively to all the speeches, making only an occasional comment, summed up the arguments pro and con in a sober, serious, sometimes dryly humorous speech, set aside the accusations of lezeunity as a bogey that had ceased to frighten even children. As to the accusation formulated by the minority of the commission that the commissaryship is destined to become an electoral manufactory,

"Allow me," said Rudini, "to record my conviction, founded on experience, that the result of governmental interference in general elections is the preparation of a majority for the opponents of that government. It is quite possible that were I to put in motion the orthodox electioneering machinery I could secure a House, ostensibly exclusively Rudinian, which in a month or so would inevitably enthrone my successor—possibly Sonnino!"

Then Rudini frankly and simply explained why, instead of awaiting the consent of the House, he had obtained a royal decree for the immediate dispatch of Codronchi to Sicily.

"The amnesty for political prisoners condemned by the military tribunals, which I found it my bounden duty to recommend to his Majesty, had created such agitation in Sicily that the prefects and all other authorities implored me to send military reinforcements. Such was the panic generated that for a moment I thought I should be compelled to endow General Pelloux with the same authority granted last year to General Mirri. But the idea of a second military occupation of Sicily was repugnant to me; therefore I committed the irregularity—call it by its right name, the *illegality*—of obtaining a royal decree for the instant dispatch of the civil Commissary."

He then announced his intention of proposing the reform of the entire land tenure in Sicily. Referring to the criticisms on Codronchi for receiving the memorandum of the Socialists, he said that many items therein were worthy of consideration. They demanded the abolition of the *dazio consumo* (tax on retail food). This reform could be effected only gradually, but all are agreed on the fact that the working and rural populations, compelled in Sicily to inhabit the closed communes, were taxed to a point beyond the power of endurance. Other items, such as the exemption of the poorest from the poll or hearth tax, of workmen and microscopic proprietors from the income and land-tax, were reasonable demands. So the abolition of the truck system and the weekly payment of the miners, the freedom of the cooperative system, the concession of certain public works to properly organized coöperative societies, the exemption of the poor man's ass or mule from taxation, he likewise considered just demands. After reiterating his intention to oppose the re-formation of the Faschi or the formation of associations of workmen (similar to the English trades unions), he ended his speech "loudly applauded and congratulated."

After the victory it was the intention of the Minister to present at once the bill for the abolition of the export duty on sulphur and other practical measures for Sicily. But Ricotti, the Minister of War, insisted in the Council of Ministers on the presentation of his bills for military reform and reduction. His colleagues entreated him to defer the debate until November, pleading the impossibility of detaining the Deputies at Rome during the dog-days. Ricotti refused and resigned. Rudini, who has always upheld ministerial solidarity, presented the resignation of all to the King. This is a mere formality. The Minister of War, and possibly one or two others, will be at once replaced. The Sicilian bills discussed, the House will adjourn for the summer vacation.

"Cosa fatta capo ha," and this first act of social justice to Sicily, which has secured the immediate and complete pacification of the island, will, if followed up to its natural and legitimate issues, mark a new departure, not only in Sicily, but in the entire social and economical policy of Italy. I forgot to say that the entire Extreme Left voted for Rudini's project—even to Napoleon Colajani, the "reasonable Socialist."

J. W. M.

Correspondence.

THE ONE ISSUE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have recently received letters from four friends, all of whom may be partially described to readers of the *Nation* by my saying that they read the *Nation*. They are men occupying honorable and responsible positions. They are men of education, open-minded, and solicitous for good government. In the early days of civil-service reform each of them was an active worker in its behalf. They have been earnest supporters of Mr. Cleveland on

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the tariff issue, but were disgusted with the last Democratic Congress for its tariff timidity. At heart each of them is a free-trader. They represent three distinct parts of the country, north, south, and west, and I think they might be taken as representative independents of their respective sections.

Now these four good citizens all inform me that they expect to vote for the Chicago ticket. One says that he has recently become converted to the 16-to-1 doctrine. Another says that he considers the money question unimportant, that he is uncertain what the result of free coinage of silver would be, and that he will vote for any reform ticket rather than support McKinley. The other two say outright that they are opposed to the free coinage of silver, but that they will "swallow anything to down McKinleyism." One of them goes so far as to say that he believes the "independent coinage of silver at 16 to 1 will do great harm."

These letters confirm the opinion I had formed in talking with people at several points in a recent trip from New Orleans to this place, namely, that many people have not yet defined the issue in their minds as one of sound money alone, and that the "friends" of sound money have all to gain and nothing to lose by insisting more and more upon this question as the sole issue of the coming campaign.—Respectfully,

JAMES H. DILLARD.

AMHERST, MASS., July 29, 1896.

SOUTHERN EXPERIENCE THROWN AWAY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: We of the old Confederate days remember it was a common saying that a man went out in the morning with his market-basket full of banknotes and returned with it half-full of food. Granted that we get free coinage of silver, and considering the potential output of silver by the Western States, then we may see history repeat itself. Only this time the man's load would be more cumbersome and more ridiculous, for instead of being an indication of a sentiment of patriotism, it would be the badge of a nation of dupes. AN OLD READER AND ADMIRER.

SEVENOAKS, KENT, ENG., July 22, 1896.

DYNAMITE AND THE DECLINE OF SILVER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Among the many agencies contributing to the fall in the value of silver, the principal one seems to me to have been least observed. In 1873 the miners of the West were using black powder almost exclusively. During the two or three subsequent years nitroglycerine, or dynamite, came gradually and generally to be used. While black powder was in use, the average contract price for driving tunnels and drifts in mines was $15 per foot; with the advent of dynamite the price dropped to $10 and less. I make this statement as a practical miner working then and now, and fully aware of the local variations in prices, but venture to say that no miner will deny that the use of dynamite effected a very large average reduction in the cost of metal-mining.

As formerly the world's yield of gold was principally from alluvial washings, the influence of the new explosive on gold was slight; but now that gold is being increasingly sought in reefs and veins, the effect must soon become manifest. The New York *Engineering and Mining Journal* of the 18th inst., in an article on the difficulties incident to mining in the Transvaal, is my authority for the statement that the tax on dynamite alone yields the Transvaal Government $2,405,000 a year. The South African ore is not high-grade, and without the use of dynamite it is doubtful whether those mines could be profitably worked at all. Four-fifths of the gold yield of the world is now obtained from fissure veins or rock in places requiring the use of dynamite. If, in spite of the tremendous demand for gold for the war-chests of Europe and for various economic requirements, such as resumption of specie payments, changes from silver basis, etc., its value has not measurably appreciated, then we must attribute the result to the invention of dynamite, and we may deduce that, the more urgent demands being satisfied, gold will be cheapened with the inevitable increasing production.

Gold, being the final measurement of value for all countries, whether gold or silver-using, must always be in demand. Its apparent value remains constant; its real value fluctuates relatively to the price of any one commodity, or of all commodities taken in aggregate. The discovery and exploitation of new and rich gold-fields create an immediate and pressing demand for the products of art and industry, and the result becomes visible in rising prices.

The silverite is loath to admit that silver has become too cumbrous a medium of exchange between nations. He complains of an appreciation in the value of gold, and yet wants his silver raised to that value. He does not ask that the value of gold be made less, but wants that of silver made more. He demands a double standard (a manifest absurdity), and will not see that a world-pulsating cause, as potent and insidious as the law of gravitation, will regulate values in spite of legislation or standards of any kind.

It is commonly asserted, and perhaps believed, by silver men that silver was never demonetized before this century. The historical variations in the ratio coming down through the ages from 3 to 1 to the present legal 16 to 1 and real 30 to 1, do not seem to suggest anything to their minds. Senator Wolcott, whom we might suppose to be a man of some learning, made a grandiloquent assertion in the Senate to the effect that the Cæsars never dared to tamper with the sacred functions of silver, and his statement went unrebuked and uncontradicted by the venerable Solons, his associates. As a matter of fact, silver was demonetized by the Roman Government early in the third century. I would refer Mr. Wolcott and others to so easily accessible and indisputable an authority as Gibbon. As early as the time of Constantine, gold was required in payment of taxes and imports, and as late as the time of Justinian gold alone was receivable in payment of all taxes and dues to the Government. If that be not demonetization, it would certainly be very injurious discrimination; and as the Roman Government coined only such silver and copper as it deemed necessary, and never entertained the idea of free coinage, silver must have stood a very poor show in those days.

There are some things to be said about the ancient production of silver and the decline thereof, but that is another story.

GEORGE EVERETT ROBIN.

HILLSBORO, NEW MEXICO, July 25, 1896.

THE PRODUCTION OF GOLD.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your article in the edition of July 9, 1896, entitled "Cornering Gold," has caused some difference of opinion in this office. Will you kindly give figures and authorities which lead you to say that the total amount of gold produced since 1492 has been between nine and ten and a half billions of dollars? How much of this amount of gold do you now consider is in circulation, or could be considered as gold money? Do you mean to imply that the total amount of gold produced since 1492 is available or in use as gold coin? Please produce authorities and figures to show that the Imperial Bank and Treasury of Russia has a larger amount of gold than the Bank of France.

The writer is thoroughly with the *Nation* in favor of sound money, and writes this letter at the request of a rabid silverite.

Yours very truly, P.

BALTIMORE, MD., July 29, 1896.

[We gave our authority for the amount of gold in the world—that of Mr. Charles S. Gleed, in an article in the *Bond Record* for April—but without endorsing it. Estimates of the amount of gold in the world, even those of trained statisticians, must be regarded as largely guesswork. Our arguments on "cornering gold" would not be essentially impaired if Mr. Gleed's estimate were reduced one-half. The amount of gold in circulation is purely conjectural. Our authority for the amount of gold in the Imperial Bank and Treasury of Russia was an article by M. Leroy-Beaulieu, published in the *Forum* magazine a few months ago, in which the amount was put at $400,000,000. The Bank of France has now reached this figure, but we have reason for thinking that the Russian accumulation is considerably larger than the amount stated by M. Leroy-Beaulieu.—ED. NATION.]

TEACHING HISTORY IN THE SCHOOLS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The letter entitled "Our Schools and Chauvinism" in your issue of July 16 has moved me to reply. Any thoughtful person must agree with its writer in deeply regretting the time worse than wasted by our schools in the study of dates and wars, not only in the history of our own country, but in all so-called historical studies. No one can deprecate more than the intelligent teacher, "usually a woman of limited attainments," the instilling of the blind egoism which we call patriotism, and the unutterable folly of the flood of bombast and stupidity let loose upon our children about "Old Glory." But let the blame rest where it belongs, upon the male "educators." *They* make the examination papers and pass or reject our pupils over whom we toil and pray and—yes, weep. For we, with our limited attainments, love them and would fain use those poor attainments to make peace-loving, honorable men and women; but at the order of our men superiors we are training them into machines full of dreary facts and unreasoning prejudices. Given, for instance, the Regents' Examination (and it is worthy of

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capitals, for it has slain its thousands and tens of thousands), and the time usually allotted for the study of history, and what can the bewildered, overworked teacher, bound with red tape, forbidden to discuss political issues, do except stuff the unfortunate little manikins with dates and names and plans of fortifications such as the text-books and examination papers call for?

This matter of history-teaching has been a source of much grief to me, and fate has always thrown some exceptionally dull class in my hands. I have tried various methods to teach what I called history and arouse the interest of my somnolent pupils. The latter I can do. But this time, my dear old superintendent, with a look of affectionate solicitude, admonished me, after an active discussion on the part of the pupils in regard to the difference in the formation of the civil code in English-settled States and French-Spanish territory, that it might excite comment. Again, discussion of the tariff is politics, I am told. Another time, in regard to the same "little *pasear into Mexico*," my principal informs me that he wishes patriotism taught, and does not consider that drawing out criticisms upon the Government from a class in their teens is the way. A discussion of banks and banking which a class had looked up for days is criticised by a school official as tending to produce a lack of respect for the States, as that section had repudiated after the crash of State banking—a fact which, knowing, I had absolutely forgotten in the discussion. A still more lofty official, after hearing my class, complimented it highly, wished I could show his teachers how to inspire a class—it was excellent, etc., etc.; but—er—wasn't it—er—unusual, so to speak, revolutionary? And probably if my position depended upon him I should have lost it.

Now give us a chance, an object of ambition, and we will work up to it. We would rather teach what is true and good, and if we do not know how yet, we can learn. Only let us be sure our position depends upon our good work, not upon freaks; let us know that, if we are able, principalships, superintendencies, commissionerships are open to us women as to men. Give us intelligent, practical, liberal supervision with men or women who have experience and brain; not conceited, ignorant boys or reactionary "cranks" whose one qualification is masculinity. Then we will try to do our part.

I do not pretend that all or any women teachers can discuss with their classes ably "financial, social, and economic events," besides teaching competently some twenty other things, including usually drawing, coloring, and music. But, if a woman teacher may be pardoned for criticism, candidate Bryan is said to have devoted his life to the study of American economic conditions (politics), and yet his utterances are not fraught with wisdom nor characterized by exactitude, and he has been paid five thousand per year and more, we five hundred and less, and he has not been called upon for intelligent instruction in the twenty other branches. Let each teacher in graded schools teach a related group of subjects in which she is interested, and not waste energy in a treadmill round of duties to her as distasteful as they are burdensome, and we will give you as results work worth our doing, and it will secure to us what now we alone of laborers cannot hope for—success, hope, health, and content.

A Woman of Limited Intellectual Attainments.

THE ETHICAL VALUE OF MEN OF LETTERS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The "Department of Publicity" of a prominent "Manufacturing Company" in Hartford sends, to writers who are supposed to have the ear of the public, a circular asking the recipient to write a contribution "bringing in" a certain article made by said company. After this contribution has been printed and paid for by "some leading magazine or other periodical," the writer, who is to keep the money, is to be rewarded for his service by allowance to that amount on the article itself, when he may learn what its merits are after he has aided in advertising it.

Has anything in the conduct of American men of letters encouraged those who hold this peculiar view of the integrity of their aims; or are the agents of departments of publicity alone to blame for the outrage? It may, at least, be well for those who receive the circular, or others like it, to consider these questions. K. S.

July 28, 1896.

Notes.

In view of a contemplated 'Life and Letters of Mrs. Stowe,' it is requested by her family that any persons having letters from her will send them for examination, copying, and possible use to Houghton, Mifflin & Co., 4 Park Street, Boston, Mass., or to Mr. A. P. Watt, Hastings House, Norfolk St., Strand, London. They will be carefully returned.

A Life of Richard Cobden, by John Morley, is announced for publication in the fall by Macmillan Co.

'The Bay Colony,' by William Dummer Northend, a history of colonial Massachusetts to the death of John Winthrop, is in the press of Estes & Lauriat, Boston.

Copeland & Day will publish 'A Boy's Book of Rhymes,' by Clinton Scollard.

The title, 'Le Premier Théâtre Parisien et les Arènes de Lutèce,' by Charles Normand (Paris: *Ami des Monuments et des Arts;* New York: Dyrsen & Pfeiffer), of a forthcoming work on Parisian Gallo-Roman antiquities, has a piquant reference to discoveries made from 1870 to 1892 of a theatre and amphitheatre in one. The work will be fully illustrated.

A selection from Goethe's Poems, 327 in number, by Karl Heinemann, with nearly 200 illustrations in the text and twelve full-page photogravures by Frank Kirchbach, in folio form, is promised for monthly issue ending October, 1897, by Adolf Titze, Leipzig (New York: Lemcke & Buechner).

A monumental systematic work, 'Das Tierreich: eine Zusammenstellung und Kennzeichnung der recenten Tierformen,' under the general editorship of Franz Eilhard Schulze, and the auspices of the German Zoölogical Society, will bear the Berlin imprint of Fridländer & Sohn (New York: Lemcke & Buechner). A great corps of specialists will collaborate, and a quarter of a century from January, 1897, must elapse before the completion of the work, which will appear in parts, sold separately. It will be thoroughly indexed. If subscriptions warrant, a one-page impression on writing-paper will be issued.

A timely popular edition at a low price of Mr. Horace White's 'Money and Banking' has just been put forth by Ginn & Co., Boston. The chapters on Money will be found to satisfy by far the greater number of *relevant* questions now being asked regarding the burning issue of the hour.

Mr. William Eleroy Curtis, the veteran correspondent and the manager of the Bureau of American Republics under Mr. Blaine, was last year sent to Japan, by Mr. Victor F. Lawson of the Chicago *Record*, for a three months' sojourn, and his letters are now republished by Stone & Kimball, in pleasing form, under the title of 'The Yankees of the East: Sketches of Modern Japan.' Mr. Curtis's sketches cover many things not before brought into a traveller's journal, and in novelty of material and range of topics make perhaps the most interesting of recent books of the sort; the effort, also, at fairness of view is unusually successful. The work is, however, chiefly a recension of various untested hearsays, such as the hasty sojourner has always to be contented with (except that this author has shown more than the usual traveller's recklessness in publishing unfounded and misleading statements), and must not be taken in any degree whatever as an authority.

The story of the Ashanti expedition is well told by Lieut.-Col. R. S. S. Baden-Powell in the 'Downfall of Prempeh' (Philadelphia: Lippincott). After a clear and satisfactory statement of the reasons for the expedition, the author describes in detail the careful preparations made to lessen the dangers and difficulties of the march through the bush. Though these were most efficiently and successfully carried out, still fifty per cent. of the men and about eighty per cent. of the officers were attacked by fever. The author was placed in charge of the native levies, and his description of the methods by which he brought his motley command to obey orders shows that he possesses no small degree of tact, humor, and sympathy for the negro. The incidents of the march 150 miles through the forest to Kumassi differ in no respect from those of every other large Central African expedition, and the abject submission of the king gave no opportunity for the narration of striking events. Little is added by the author to our knowledge of Kumassi—literally the "death-place"—or of the Ashantis, who are so imbued with a lust for blood through the extent and frequency of their human sacrifices that their existence as an independent nation was a nuisance which had to be abated in the interests of mankind. The book, which contains several illustrations, closes with an encouraging chapter, by Sir George Baden-Powell, on the development of Ashanti.

The 'First Theatre in America,' being New Series No. 1 of the issues of the Dunlap Society, whose earlier publications were formerly noticed in these columns, marks a phœnix-like revival. Judge C. P. Daly's paper was privately printed a number of years ago, and is now reissued, unchanged, but with a "supplement" which adds a hundred pages to the original sixteen and shows how much further light has come to the author. Even now the account is very fragmentary—one is tempted to say scrappy—and proves clearly that Judge Daly has used only such material as he has stumbled upon, making no attempt to dig out the facts for a real history of the early American theatre. It is, however, a good basis for some more exhaustive account. As to dates, the work must be used with care; a Virginian newspaper of 1732 would be indeed an historical find, as would a 1736 edition of Graham's History. The long extract from Cooke's 'Virginia Comedians,' a pure work of

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fiction, and the lengthy "Considerations of the Objections to the Stage," are so aside from the subject of the essay, and of such trifling value, that they savor strongly of padding.

The Museum of Fine Arts in Boston has just issued a new edition of Mr. Edward Robinson's admirable 'Catalogue of Casts from Greek and Roman Sculpture,' first published in 1891 (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). The original work was reviewed at length in these columns. The new issue has been subjected to a thorough revision, and almost every page testifies, not only to the progress of archæological research during the past five years, but to the author's growth in mastery of his subject. In its present form the book is one of the few first-rate catalogues of Greek and Roman sculpture (whether casts or originals) in existence, and we warmly recommend it to every student of the subject, whatever his other appliances for study may be. We note that Mr. Robinson, like Mr. Ernest Gardner in his 'Handbook of Greek Sculpture,' though for different reasons, maintains a sceptical attitude regarding the Phidian character of the statue restored by Prof. Furtwängler and identified by him with the Lemnian Athena of the great Athenian sculptor.

A few weeks ago we remarked in these columns, in connection with Miss Tarbell's biographical study of Madame Roland, that "a volume of Madame Roland's unedited letters with notes" would be of value. We were then unaware that precisely such a volume had just appeared, 'Le Mariage de Madame Roland: Trois années de correspondance amoureuse (1777-1780),' published, with an introduction and notes, by A. Join-Lambert (Paris: Plon). This correspondence leaves no question that the marriage was due to the ardent wishes of Mlle. Phlipon, and that her view of it in later years was a complete misconception.

Among several works of older date to which renewed interest has been imparted by their relation to questions of our day, Th. G. von Hippel's 'Über die bürgerliche Verbesserung der Weiber' is one of the most curious. The book was first published in 1792 by Voss of Berlin, the title-page bearing a pretty vignette in place of the author's name. It is remarkable for its full line of arguments in favor of the advancement of woman; few new ones have been added since. In moral elevation and loftiness of air Hippel resembles Condorcet, who pleaded for woman's civic rights two years before the appearance of the Königsberger's book, and who may have inspired him.

Few families, we trust, are visited with more tribulations than M. Maubert's, in Henry Gréville's 'Céphise' (Paris: Plon); but the heroine of the story, with a rare combination of fortitude and womanly tact and gentleness, succeeds in averting the worst, and, by harmonizing discordant elements, restores peace and comparative happiness to the family. Finally, her own good fortune comes to her as the just reward of unselfish devotion and renunciation. The story is full of incidents, and is told with the animation to which the reader of Mme. Durand's books is accustomed.

E. Rodocanachi's 'Renée de France, Duchesse de Ferrare' (Paris: Ollendorff) is an historical study of a great protectress of the Reformation both in France and in Italy, and is a conscientious yet brilliant piece of work, written in a clear, picturesque, and taking way that holds the reader with absorbing interest.

'Le Cœur de Régine,' by Jean Rameau (Paris: Colin & Cie.), is a charming novel, full of the beauty of the Bearnese land and of human interest; absolutely pure, well constructed, and touching, told with simplicity that conceals art. Régine herself, her farmer father, the brilliant and artificial Countess de Thorn, are excellently drawn characters.

Mr. John Bartlett, the veteran author of 'Familiar Quotations,' four years ago presented to the Library of Harvard College his exceptionally fine collection of works on angling and cognate themes. The group of works on angling proper was reinforced by the Library's own possessions, and the collection as a whole has now been catalogued by Miss Louise Rankin Albee among the Library's "Bibliographical Contributions." A subject-index is subjoined.

The *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for July opens with an account of explorations made in Celebes during the past three or four years by Messrs. P. and F. Sarasin. Their latest discovery is of a lake in which was a village on piles. The inhabitants manufactured "earthenware and bronze utensils similar to those found in European lake-dwellings." The slave-trade prevails, notwithstanding the efforts of the Dutch Government to repress it. There is also an abstract of M. Raoul Pictet's paper on irrigation by solar energy, read before the Geneva Geographical Congress. Basing his theory on the observation of the sand-spouts in the desert near Cairo, which sometimes attain a height of 13,000 feet, with funnels having a diameter of 2,000 feet, he says that if an area of one hectare (two and one-half acres) were covered with blackened plates of sheet iron under which water was conducted, a huge boiler would be constructed capable of heating the water by the solar rays alone to 150° Fahr., and thus developing two thousand horse-power, by means of which the Nile water could be raised to the proper height and poured over the desert.

The article of most general interest in the sixth number of *Petermann's Mitteilungen* is Dr. Baumann's description of a small lake in German East Africa. Though it has neither inlet nor outlet, its waters are drinkable and abound in fish and hippopotami. Finding a village on the shore whose inhabitants cultivated manioc, he refers to the immense increase of this American plant in Equatorial Africa, due probably to the fact that the locusts spare it. An excellent geologic and tektonic map of Venezuela is accompanied with notes and profiles.

The Russians are displaying great vigor in the construction of the Siberian Railway. From a report to the committee of which the Czar is president, it appears that 918 miles were built last season, and that the road is now completed to the River Yenesei, more than a third of the whole distance. The great engineering difficulties in carrying the road around Lake Baikal are to be avoided by ferrying the trains across the lake, a distance of twenty miles. It is probable that the surveyed route from this point will be abandoned, and, thanks to the new relations with China, that the line will be carried directly through Mantchuria. Not only would this shorten the distance to the Pacific by 663 miles, but the road would pass through a densely populated region, rich in natural products and lacking in manufactured goods.

—Natives of Maine who are sometimes at a loss for illustrations of the appropriateness of the motto on their State seal, will take satisfaction in examining Judge Joseph Williamson's 'Bibliography of the State of Maine from the earliest period to 1891' (Portland: The Thurston Print). For this work, though not above criticism from the standpoint of the professional cataloguer, must be awarded leadership in scope, in completeness, and in fulness of entry over every previous attempt at the bibliography of an entire State. The eleven thousand entries contained in its two substantial volumes aim to give the full title of every book, pamphlet, and magazine article, either printed in Maine, or referring to that commonwealth, or written by a resident thereof. The intentional omissions are certain public, municipal, and legal reports, together with pamphlets relating to organizations not of an historical, literary, charitable, or religious character. The plan of the book also excludes—unfortunately for the literary fame of Maine—publications of natives issued after they ceased to be residents. Within these limits the work seems fairly exhaustive. Certainly it is an invaluable catalogue for use in historical and genealogical or in literary investigation. On comparing it with that helpful tool, the Boston Public Library Index to American Local History, by means of an examination of the references under the names of three Maine cities chosen at random, the writer finds that in the same field the Bibliography records one-third more articles than the Index, and that the number of historical books and essays cited is thrice as great. Under the respective localities described are found references not only to well-known novels like Hawthorne's 'Fanshawe,' Mrs. Stowe's 'Pearl of Orr's Island,' and Howells's 'A Modern Instance,' but also to a large number of stories and poems of places that may hardly rank as literature, yet are of interest to residents and sojourners in the Pine Tree State. The compiler's carefulness is shown by the inclusion of the full title of Longfellow's rare 'French Exercises,' one of his educational books, that is almost invariably omitted in bibliographies of the poet. In many cases Judge Williamson notes the successive editions of a popular work. At the beginning of the eighteenth century, Rev. Samuel Moodey of York appears as the favorite Maine author. His 'The Vain Youth Summoned to Appear before Christ's Bar,' issued in 1707, reached a third edition in 1760, and his 'Judas the Traitor, Hung up in Chains,' met with similar honor. At the end of the nineteenth century his successor in popular esteem is a lady living in the adjoining town, Miss Sarah Orne Jewett, whose 'Deephaven' reached its twenty-fourth edition in 1892.

—Charles Scribner's Sons have recently put on the market two sumptuous and excellent books of adventure. The one is Mr. W. A. Baillie-Grohman's 'Sport in the Alps,' and the other is Mr. E. A. FitzGerald's 'Climbs in the New Zealand Alps.' Mr. Grohman has probably a better knowledge of the whole range of Alpine shooting than any other Englishman. Seven or eight years ago he had brought down his hundredth chamois, and ever since boyhood he has had the run of the preserves of dukes and princes, besides the freedom of many communes. He is, moreover, a delightful writer, and many readers who never saw a chamois or heard of a steinbock will linger over the pages of the present volume. Mr. Grohman's 'Camps in the Rockies' introduced him to the sportsmen of this continent, but long before its publication he was

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well known to lovers of the eastern Alps. He now recurs to his old theme of the Tyrol. Switzerland is left out of sight because of the comparative inferiority of its shooting. "Republican equality of civil rights and game-preserving cannot, we know, exist side by side." The chamois takes first place in any account of Alpine game, and Mr. Grohman gives more space to it than to all other species. The best chamois preserves are situated in the north Tyrol limestone group of the Karawendel Mountains, along the march-line between Austria and the Bavarian Highlands. Over 8,000 chamois are killed in Austria annually, and this district in proportion to its extent heads the list. Mr. Grohman discusses the history of chamois-hunting, the nature and the present number of the animal, chamois-driving in the preserves, stalking in peasants' shoots, and stalking in winter. A chapter is devoted to the late Duke of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha and his shoot in the Hinter-Riss. The Prince Consort's elder brother was no less a born Jäger than a born gentleman, and Mr. Grohman's sporting reminiscences of him are among his best touches. The remainder of the volume deals with the other principal species of Alpine game, to wit, the red deer, the roe-deer, the black-cock, the capercaillie, and the practically extinct bouquetin or steinbock. Throughout, Mr. Grohman enlivens his text with many of the good stories which we have come to expect from him in every new book. His sketches of the art of Alpine venery in the past are also very entertaining.

—Mr. FitzGerald is a geographical pioneer as well as a climber. The Alps of the southern island of New Zealand were visited in 1882 by the Rev. W. S. Green with Emil Boss and Ulrich Kaufmann of Grindelwald. This party got to within a stone's throw of the summit of Mount Cook, 12,349 feet, but were obliged to retreat at the last moment. No serious attempt was made to explore the glacier region above the Hermitage till 1894, when Mr. FitzGerald went out with Mr. C. L. Barrow and the now famous Mattias Zurbriggen of Macugnaga. The snow-line is extremely low in the New Zealand Alps, and Mr. FitzGerald's results, measured in terms of exertion, equal the more showy record of many a Caucasian or Himalayan expedition. Zurbriggen was, of course, indispensable, and his unaided ascent of Mount Cook is a splendid exploit. He and Mr. FitzGerald nearly lost their lives on Mount Sefton, and were saved only by the third strand of their rope after two had broken. Mr. FitzGerald's geographical novelties are the more thorough examination of the Tasman glacier and its lateral ice-fields, and the discovery of a pass across the ranges between the Tasman and the Copland Rivers. Five important peaks were ascended, and Mr. FitzGerald's account of the attractiveness of New Zealand climbing will probably draw more Englishmen to the same group. Suitable appendices on geology, flora, and fauna are added to the narrative of adventure, and the illustrations are among the best ever presented in a book of the kind. The photogravure of Mount Cook from the summit of the Silberhorn is the limit of what this art can do in the way of faithful delineation. A large folding map of the New Zealand glaciers accompanies the volume.

—Dr. George Clarke's little monograph on 'The Education of Children at Rome' (Macmillan), originally prepared as a dissertation for the degree of Ph.D. in the University of Colorado, contains a clear summary of the facts, and is written in a bright and not unentertaining style. The first chapter sets forth the purpose of education at Rome; the most original of the following seven is that entitled "Pedagogical Ideas of the Romans"; the others treat of home training, the curriculum of primary and secondary schools, school buildings, and the status of teachers. There is really nothing else in English which covers the ground so thoroughly, and Dr. Clarke's book will therefore be useful in many quarters as an introduction to the subject. Naturally, he makes much use of Quintilian, whose criticisms on the evil influences which in his day beset the sons of the rich, both at home and in the streets and schools, often read as though addressed to the same class in our own time and country. Many, too, who have lately joined in the hue and cry against the neglect of English in our schools might profitably take to heart what Cicero says in the *Brutus:* "It is of great moment whom one hears every day at home, with whom one speaks in boyhood, and what sort of language is used by one's father, mother, and pedagogues [*Anglicè*, "nurses," not "teachers"]." On the other hand, the Roman fault of banishing all but the eminently practical from the curriculum should be a warning to those modern teachers whose sole aim seems to be not to educate but to "prepare for college." Dr. Clarke is in general well acquainted with the material, although we miss in his bibliography the names of several recent writers, such as Pottier, Rossi, Rothenberg, Budaker, and Bresnik. Ussing's book, too, is cited in its Altona translation of 1870 instead of in the Berlin version of 1885. With his interpretation of the authors we have little fault to find. The quotation from Pliny on p. 6 is perhaps a little out of place, since in that passage Pliny is not speaking of the education of children. Of the trick practised by Persius, who says that when a boy he used to rub his eyes with olive oil to prevent his being "called up" on declamation days, Dr. Clarke remarks that this was done "to give him the appearance of illness, though how oil would have that effect is not apparent." But the point here is that oil was a common remedy for *lippitudo;* the boy (though we can't believe that the goody-goody Persius ever really did it) would apply the remedy to help out his pretence that he had the disease. We note these misprints: 222 for 223 on p. 63; 24 for 44 on p. 68; *Instaur.* for *Restaur.* on p. 55.

—That the merit system pays is rather strikingly shown by a recent publication of the United States Civil-Service Commission, from which the following statistics are taken: In 1883, when the civil-service law first went into effect, the 5,530 places (salaries attached $7,035,820) made subject to competitive examination were in the departmental service. Under the merit system, in the face of normal increase in business, the number of these classified departmental officials has been decreased 2 per cent., with a present salary cost of $6,960,602, or at a yearly saving of $75,218. In this same departmental service, the unclassified employees numbered 7,847 in 1883 and 10,760 in 1896, while the salary charge has increased from $6,792,377 to $9,746,252. The full bearing of these figures, however, is brought out only when compared with the statistics of other branches of the public service. In 1883 there were 154 Senate officials, total salaries $276,044; in 1896 there are 326 such employees, salaries $432,228. The House of Representatives in 1883 employed 197 officials, salaries $364,028; by 1896 the number had risen to 591, salaries $624,022. In the judicial department of the Government the officials have increased during the past thirteen years from six to eighty-nine, their salaries from $15,000 to $114,150. We find, therefore, that in 1883 there were, in the legislative, judicial, and unclassified departmental services, 8,204 employees, receiving salaries amounting to $7,447,449, and that in 1896 these figures have risen to 11,766 employees, salaries $10,916,652. Even admitting that the work assigned to the unclassified positions has grown more rapidly than that of the classified (of which there is no pretence), these official returns should supply food for thought to the non-political mind.

—The seventeenth volume of the *Goethe-Jahrbuch* (1896), the midsummer gift of the Goethe Society to its members, is this year of especial interest. It contains the eleventh annual report, in which the work of the first decade of the society's existence is reviewed. Since last year the membership has fallen off; on December 31, 1895, there were 2,693 members—only sixty-four more than in the year when the society was founded. It may, therefore, safely be assumed that the present membership is practically permanent, and the treasurer's report shows that the income thus assured is adequate to the actual needs of the society. During the past ten years 345,953 marks have been expended, more than half of which has been devoted to the two annual publications; the assets are set down as 106,650 marks. When, in connection with this satisfactory showing, we consider the uniform excellence and public value of the work done and the unrivalled facilities afforded to students by the archives, we must assent to the complacent claim of the committee that the Goethe Society is one of the most flourishing literary organizations in the world. Besides the bibliography, which is always a model of classification and completeness, the present *Jahrbuch* contains the usual mass of interesting and more or less useful material. From the archives there are numerous hitherto unpublished letters to Goethe from Tieck, Brinckmann, and the elder Voss, together with several bits of Goethe's own writings, principally relating to art. There are also seven original treatises. One, dealing with Goethe's masterly exposition of Leonardo's "Last Supper," is accompanied by reproductions of that composition in three forms: the original painting, the copy in the Brera, and the engraving by Morghen. Max Friedlaender's essay on "Goethe's Gedichte in der Musik" furnishes much curious information concerning the fate of Goethe's songs in the hands of various composers, and there is a valuable bibliography of the musical settings which his best known lyrics have received. This is a forestudy to an exhaustive work, which is soon to appear, on German song in the eighteenth century. Among the countless "Miscellen" we note especially a carefully reasoned article by an Englishman on the chronology of the first paralipomenon to "Faust," which is here reproduced in facsimile. The writer's conclusion is that, although in the autumn of 1773 "Faust" had been begun, the Gretchen episode had not been clearly thought out, but that the poet had already recognized the necessity of a second part. This deduction coincides with Goethe's express statement towards the close

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of his life, and is further evidence of the trend of modern criticism which, Prof. Dowden to the contrary notwithstanding, is to establish the view that the entire "Faust" is, in its essential features, the outgrowth of a single original conception.

CHARLES BULFINCH.

The Life and Letters of Charles Bulfinch, Architect; with Other Family Papers. Edited by his Granddaughter, Ellen Susan Bulfinch. With an Introduction by Charles A. Cummings. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1896. Octavo, pp. xiv-323.

THIS life of the first American architect of distinction appeared at a most opportune moment, when the question of the virtual destruction of his principal work, the Boston State-house, was a burning one. It was well that we should be reminded at this time what manner of man was this true artist and good citizen, who "has fairly earned, by his respectful treatment of old historical monuments, a similar treatment of his own buildings." The material for a biography of him seems unfortunately scanty, and the present volume attains its handsome proportions by dint of large draughts upon "family papers" which have little direct bearing upon his own life and work, but which give us full-length portraits of his mother and other relatives. Slight as is the sketch of Bulfinch himself, however, it is prettily touched, and reveals to us a personality of much charm.

Charles Bulfinch may almost be included in that list of amateur architects which would embrace the names of Michelangelo and Perrault and many another to whom the world owes notable buildings. Architecture was rather a pastime with him at first than a business, and it was only after his dallying with it had brought financial ruin that he made of it a bread-winner. Born in Boston in 1763, the son of a physician of repute, his boyhood was coincident with the Revolutionary war. His father did not wish him to pursue the profession of medicine, and after his graduation from Harvard in 1781 he was placed for a short time in a counting-house, where he seems to have done little work, devoting himself rather to cultivating that taste for architecture which had shown itself in his earliest scribblings in his school-books. A trip to Europe in 1785 fostered this tendency still more. Late in life he wrote: "These pursuits did not confirm me in any business habits of buying & selling; on the contrary, they had a powerful adverse influence on my whole after life." His portrait, painted in London at this time, shows a pleasing and refined face of no great power. "You will find it very rough," he writes, "but that is the modish style of painting, introduced by Sir Joshua Reynolds. Mr. Copley, indeed, paints in another manner, his pictures are finished to the utmost nicety, but then—they are *very dear*." On his return to Boston he married and lived the life of a gentleman of substance and of leisure, dabbling in architecture, designing the Beacon Hill monument, and so forth.

In 1789 he was elected one of the Selectmen of the town, and his relations with the municipal government of Boston continued with a brief interval for twenty-nine years. He was chairman of the Board of Selectmen for twenty-one years, from 1797 to 1818. In his quality of artist and dilettant he was much interested in the founding of the Boston Theatre, was one of its original trustees, and the designer of its building, which was first opened in 1794. The plans were presented to the trustees, and a gold medal, which shows the design of the theatre, and which served as a perpetual ticket of admission, was the only remuneration received for them. It was his love for architecture rather than for speculation in real estate that led him into the scheme of building Franklin Crescent, which brought about his first bankruptcy. "With what remorse," he says, "have I looked back on those events, when, blindly gratifying a taste for my favorite pursuit, I involved for life myself and wife with our children—my Father and Mother and Sisters, who all held the utmost confidence in my measures and pride in my expected success."

But if "these pursuits" had exercised "a powerful adverse influence" upon his life and had led him to financial disaster, they were now to become the means of his livelihood and to give him a reputation which is likely to be enduring. For the rest of his life he was a professional architect. He had no professional training whatever, was never an accomplished draughtsman, and his architectural library was very meagre. With so slight an equipment he produced a series of buildings which not only are the best of their period in this country, but are intrinsically beautiful. A transparent rectitude, an admirable simplicity, and a gentle refinement and dignity seem to have been the most marked characteristics of the man himself, and these characteristics he translated into the terms of his art. Sincerity, simplicity, dignity, and refinement mark everything he produced. Much that he designed is now destroyed, and much of what is left is of extreme simplicity and almost bareness. It was the day of small things, and often, as Mr. Cummings remarks, "a little architecture was made to go a long way." Even in more elaborate works his materials were generally plain brick and wood. But, as the same writer puts it, "out of his slender resources he created . . . a body of architecture which possessed the grand qualities of simplicity, dignity, repose, not without a certain modest elegance which was of the nature of the man himself." Purity of taste and an unfailing sense of proportion made the plainest of his buildings interesting. His first truly professional undertaking and his best work is the Boston State-house. The professional standing of the President of the Boston Society of Architects makes his judgment so authoritative that we shall quote once again from his introduction his estimate of that building:

"Measured by the modern standard, it is by no means a large building: its frontage being no more than 175 feet, while its depth is only 60 feet. There is no richness of material, brick and wood serving all the purposes of construction and decoration. Yet its disposition of parts is so happy, its treatment is so broad and simple, its sparing ornament is so correct in itself and so judiciously used, that it produces the effect of size and dignity, combined in a remarkable degree with elegance and grace. Its site is the finest in the city, and the adaptation of the building to its site is perfect."

In spite of several alterations, the building is not greatly changed, and the well-executed photogravure illustrations of this volume give an excellent idea of its quality, both as to the exterior and the beautiful interior. Other buildings well illustrated either by photogravures or by drawings are the New South Meeting-house, the old City Hall of Boston, the McLean Asylum with its charming and original interior staircase, the Massachusetts General Hospital, and the State-house at Augusta, Me., his latest known design. Three of these buildings have been entirely demolished, and the General Hospital has been greatly altered and enlarged. The State-house at Augusta is the only one of the five that remains as it was originally built.

In 1812 business reverses again befell Mr. Bulfinch, and he seems to have suffered a short imprisonment for debt. He had been engaged in the draining of flats, and had not sufficient capital to carry him over the hard times brought about by the war with England. Others engaged in the same enterprise made fortunes in it. How little he lost in the esteem of his fellow-citizens is shown by the curious incident that befell in 1815, when he and two others failed of reëlection to the Board of Selectmen, upon which "every elected member . . . immediately resigned, and on a second trial Mr. Bulfinch and the others were reinstated by decided majorities." Such a vote of confidence can have been rarely paralleled.

At the end of the year 1817 Mr. Bulfinch was appointed architect of the Capitol at Washington, to succeed Mr. Latrobe, and his work there was not completed until 1830. As is well known, the Capitol had been burned by English troops during the war, and its reconstruction had been begun by Mr. Latrobe. How far Bulfinch followed Mr. Latrobe's plans and how far he altered them, seems to be unknown. It is certain that the dome did not follow the old plan, but also that it did not satisfy Mr. Bulfinch, who thought it too high. Judging from old drawings, we think he was right in this. A flatter dome would have been more in accord with the character of the original building. That which was built was neither high enough for the kind of dignity that the present dome possesses, nor low enough for the breadth of effect that Bulfinch aimed at. What Bulfinch certainly designed is the arrangement of terraces on the west front, which give such dignity to the Capitol when seen from that side. The west portico, also, shows such a marked resemblance in style and arrangement to known works by Mr. Bulfinch that it seems probable that it was partially or wholly designed by him. The alteration in the appearance of the building by the addition of the present dome and the enormous wings is so great that it is only with difficulty that one can form a conception of its appearance when Mr. Bulfinch left it in 1830. To us it appears that this original building must have been far finer and more artistic in effect than the present structure, and that the west portico must have been the finest part of the building. To-day the Capitol is imposing by sheer bulk, but has neither unity of design nor beauty of proportion. The porticos of the wings are of a pompous pseudo-Greek, not lacking in a certain dignity, but entirely without the charm that Bulfinch knew how to impart to his freer classic design with its grouped and unfluted columns. One notable difference between the old and the newer portions of the Capitol is that, in the newer parts, the heavy window pediments are carried on straight under the porticos, thus putting a roof within a roof, while in the older nucleus these pediments are replaced by plain caps or round arches under the porticos. In this it seems to us the old architect, whether Bulfinch or Latrobe, was more logical as well as more artistic than his modern successor.

In 1830 Mr. Bulfinch returned to Boston, where, with one brief interval, he lived until

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his death in 1848. No professional work of his is known to exist of later date than 1832, the year in which the State-house at Augusta was completed. The last sixteen years of his venerable and much respected old age were spent in retirement, and it is in the letters of this period that we get some of our most valuable glimpses of his charming personality. His unaffected modesty, his simplicity, shrewdness, and genuine taste are shown in a number of slight touches, until we feel that we know the man. There is a delightful tinge of naïveté in his remark, in answer to the question whether he should train up any of his sons as architects, "that he did not think there would be much left for them to do. The States and prominent towns were already supplied with their chief buildings, and he hardly thought a young man could make a living as an architect." His remarks on the difficulty of costume in modern sculpture and the unsatisfactoriness of no costume are sensible, and his suggestion with regard to Greenough's Washington is good humoredly humorous. "If I should give any advice," he says, "it would be to send the Statue to Athens, a present to King Otho, to be placed in the Parthenon, with other naked great men."

Although much of the matter included in this volume bears, as we have said, little direct relation to the life and work of Charles Bulfinch, it is by no means without an interest of its own and we are far from wishing that it had been omitted. One is sorry not to hear more of Bulfinch himself, but one is glad of these old family letters as one is of almost any old letters with their fragrance of gentility like a faint scent of lavender. They all help to form a picture of the life of Boston in its old provincial days, and to give an idea of the atmosphere in which alone such a life and such a character as Bulfinch's could have been possible.

GREGORY'S PURITANISM.

Puritanism in the Old World and in the New, from its Inception in the Reign of Elizabeth to the Establishment of the Puritan Theocracy in New England: A Historical Handbook. By the Rev. J. Gregory, Edinburgh. Introduction by the Rev. Amory H. Bradford, D.D. Fleming H. Revell. 1896. Pp. x, 406.

DURING the last three or four years we have reviewed several volumes dealing with the beginnings of New England religious life, and publication in that already well-worked field seems decidedly increasing in frequency. The latest writer to come to our notice is a Scotch Independent minister, whose prominence among his denominational brethren is shown in their choice of him as chairman of the Congregational Union of Scotland six years ago. Mr. Gregory's claims for his volume are modest. His sub-title is "A Historical Handbook," and he frankly declares, "I am not solicitous to clear myself from the imputation of being biassed, nay, of being very strongly biassed, in favour of the Puritans." The result is a vivacious volume, in spite of the fragmentary character which the subdivision of each chapter into brief paragraphs imposes; and the work, without indicating much acquaintance with the sources, shows considerable familiarity with the more recent—though not always the most recent—literature of the theme. Of course 225 loosely printed pages devoted to an account of Puritanism in the Old World, and 125 to its transplantation to America, permit only a general outline; but the main features of the story are for the most part indicated.

Mr. Gregory, however, seems to have a hazy conception of what Puritanism itself was. While it is the Puritan and the Separatist parties of history regarding which he writes, he affirms that "Samuel was a Puritan, so was Ezra, so was Nehemiah, so was John the Baptist. It was the zeal of Puritanism that moved the Divine Son to expel the traffickers from the temple. . . . Nor is this using the word Puritan in a loose, inexact sense. All that is originally connoted by it is zeal for purity—purity of faith, worship, and manners." A little later the author remarks: "The significance of Puritanism is not doctrinal but ethical. It was not necessary that it should be permanently identified with the system of Calvinism." Doubtless this is etymologically true, just as it is true that republican broadly indicates attachment to a republic; but historically it is as impossible to separate the Puritan party from its intense Calvinism or its opposition to ceremonies as to divorce the American Republican party from its support of the national Government, its hostility to slavery, and its high protection. The Puritan was a reformer; but it is far from true that all reformers have been Puritans in any sense historically attachable to that name. Mr. Gregory has a clearer conception of the points of divergence between the Puritans and Separatists, but he regards them as of little practical consequence, therein differing widely from such contemporary champions of either party as Browne and Barrowe, Cartwright and Gifford. He prefers the name Puritan as a designation of the whole movement. The beginnings of Puritanism he ascribes, not at all conclusively, to Holland.

Our author is no more satisfactory when he endeavors to explain the Puritan position. He tells us: "The ruling powers contended that every prince had authority to correct all abuses of doctrine and worship within his own territories. This the Puritans resisted as an invasion of the rights of conscience." On the contrary, none asserted more strongly than the Puritans and most of the early Separatists that it was the obligation of all magistrates to exercise their power for the purification of the church. Cartwright, as Mr. Gregory himself recognizes, deemed the punishment of heresy a duty. The poor Separatist exiles at Amsterdam wrote, in their Confession of 1596, regarding the Church of England, "that by Gods Commandement all that will bee saued must vvith speed come forth of this Antichristian estate, leaving the suppression of it vnto the Magistrate to vvhom it belongeth." The same feeling prompted John Norton, in 1651, to affirm "That licentious and pestilent Proposition, The care of the matters of Religion belongs not to the Magistrate, is a Stratagem of the Old Serpent and Father of lies, to make free passage for the doctrine of devils." It was, indeed, not what the ruler preferred, but what the Bible taught, that men were, if needful, to be coerced to follow. As the Cambridge Synod expressed it in 1646: "For the Magistrate to command or forbid according to God, as it is not persecution, so neither doth it of it selfe tend to persecution. Power to presse the Word of God and his truth, doth not give warrant to suppresse or oppresse the same." Mr. Gregory's assertion is the more difficult to understand in view of the instances of Puritan intolerance which he himself cites. Holding this view of Puritan aims, it is not surprising to find Mr. Gregory affirming, in regard to the Plymouth pilgrims, that "they had crossed the then comparatively untraversed path of the Atlantic for love of God, and in search of liberty of conscience," but it is pleasant to observe that he adds later a phrase which puts matters somewhat more truly: "They simply wanted an asylum where, free from all molestation and disability on account of their faith, they could worship the Great Being to whom they owed no doubtful or wavering allegiance."

When we turn to minuter features of Mr. Gregory's volume, we find it no more satisfactory. In spite of the general felicity of his style, the writer seems at times to have difficulty in reaching clearness of thought. Thus, he states that Robert Browne "became, according to Strype, private chaplain to the Duke of Norfolk. He was cited to appear before the Ecclesiastical Commissioners on a charge of disseminating seditious doctrines; and had not that nobleman befriended him and taken his part, he would doubtless have become acquainted with the inside of a prison much earlier than he did." Yet, notwithstanding the want of doubt thus expressed, Mr. Gregory adds a foot-note to the effect that this chaplaincy and ducal intervention "appears to be an error on the part of Strype." In describing the sufferings of Barrowe and Greenwood in 1593, Mr. Gregory says: "In the 'Apology or Defence of such True Christians as are commonly (but unjustly) called Brownists,' written a day or two before his death, we have a description of what followed from Barrowe's own pen." Barrowe's letter was written just before his execution in 1593, but the "Apology" in which it is inserted is of 1604. Mr. Gregory, speaking of the application of Whitgift's repressive measures to England, says: "It must be remembered that at that time there were not more than two thousand clergymen in the whole country"; a statement hard to reconcile with the quotation from Neal which immediately follows, that "there were only two thousand preachers to serve near ten thousand parishes, so that there were almost eight thousand parishes without preaching ministers," and Mr. Gregory's own comment on this quotation—a comment borrowed word for word from Hallam—that "in general, the number of those [ministers] who could not preach, but only read the service, was to the others nearly as four to one." We can hardly suppose Mr. Gregory to mean that only preachers were "clergymen."

Of downright mistakes the book has its full share. On p. 127 Mr. Gregory asserts that Browne gathered at Norwich, in 1580, "a numerous congregation, which comprised, probably, a considerable number of Dutch refugees"; on p. 206 he informs us that this church was "mainly composed of people from the Netherlands." Now, whatever aid may have unwittingly come to Browne from the dissemination of an Anabaptist way of thinking by exiles from Holland settled in Norwich, Mr. Gregory's statements, though having some countenance from historians before the careful researches of the late Dr. Dexter, are unwarranted in view of the facts that no Dutch names appear among those of this congregation whose names have come down to us, and that Browne's own elaborate spiritual autobiography exhibits no conscious indebtedness to Dutch sources. The declaration that John Eliot "gave up his settled ministry at Rosebury" to become a missionary to the Indians contains a double error. The

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statement that in the New England of 1648 "the leading or organizing minds were Cotton, Hooker, Norton, Davenport, and the learned and credulous Cotton Mather," is startling in view of the facts that Hooker died in 1647 and Cotton Mather was not to be born till 1663. A son of Connecticut might well wish that Mr. Gregory was not contradicted by the Colonial Records when he says that that colony refused to make church attendance compulsory; and the New Englander cannot avoid a feeling of wonder as to the process of reasoning by which Mr. Gregory can recognize the participation of those who were not church-members in the franchise in Plymouth and Connecticut, and yet say, of the electoral limitations of the founders of Massachusetts, that "it is difficult to see how they could have acted upon any other principle than that which they did, though it was sure to be found unworkable as the colony grew stronger." If little Plymouth and Connecticut found such restriction needless, it is easy to see—in fact, even seventeenth-century Puritans did perceive—how Massachusetts might have acted upon another principle than that of confining the ballot to church-members.

We may regard as at least very doubtful, in view of recent investigations, Mr. Gregory's unqualified assertion that Roger Williams "was a Welshman, born in Carmarthenshire." His reference to the Colony of Rhode Island, for which Williams obtained a patent, as "that island," like his designation of the author of 'The Sabbath in Puritan New England' as "Miss Earle," is readily accounted for by lack of personal familiarity with America; but enough of the quality of Mr. Gregory's book has been indicated to afford a comment on the commendatory opinion of the writer of the introduction with which the American edition is prefaced, that "its characteristics are perspicuity and careful scholarship."

REVOLUTIONARY MANUSCRIPTS.

B. F. Stevens's Facsimiles of Manuscripts in European Archives relating to America, 1773 1783. Vol. XXIII., Nos. 1946 to 2023. London.

THE first document (No. 1946) in the present volume is one of the choicest in the whole series; it reveals George III. in the very act of administering one of his favorite remedies, "some gold pills" (and they say the King had no humor!), to his patient, Lord North, then languishing from a severe attack of bad debts. The skilful apothecary who compounded the prescription was the Hon. John Robinson, he of the Little Red Book, Secretary of the Treasury, and leader of the House of Commons. There was no harshness in the treatment, and the dose was administered in a soothing menstruum as follows and in brief: In March, 1778, Robinson made over to Wedderburn, Whately, and Pulteney notes for £20,000, for which he held the receipt of the King. At the end of three months, these gentlemen, seemingly weary of the "trust" vested in them, turned the whole sum back to Robinson. With the receipts properly given them, the whole matter seems to stop abruptly. But what was the next step in the course of this incident of "Our Special Service"? The King in the September previous wrote to Lord North: "You have at times droped [*sic*] to me that you had been in debt ever since your first settling in life, and that you had never been able to get rest of that difficulty; I therefore must insist you will now state to me whether 12 or 15,000l will not set your affairs in order; if it will, nay, if 20,000l is necessary, I am resolved you shall have no other person concerned in freeing them but myself." In 1782 the King refers to "20,000l I gave him leave to take for the discharge of his debts." The thing was delicately carried out considering the coarseness of the age, and the sensibilities of Lord North were humanely spared. It is commonly known that Lord North's debts formed an issue in the prosecution of the war with the colonies.

After this obvious corruption one welcomes the more urbane and less strenuous self-seeking of the unhappy French officers who took across the sea much ambition and much "honneur," and found so little to flatter the one and so much to offend the other. It is evident in these letters that severe external discipline represses but does not subdue a fault-finding yet hopelessly uncritical spirit in the military character. Is it of necessity that a soldier shall be by the nature of his profession mentally crude, incapable of the nicer discriminations? De Kalb's letter (No. 1771) to the Comte de Broglie reaffirms the jealousy of Americans towards France, which is due, he says, to their "English origin." "They all have the highest opinion of themselves," and "one sees them suffer inwardly when the French obtain some advantage over the British arms." He does, however, admit the French tendency to exaggeration in these matters. A delightful instance of this is in the Chevalier de Fleury's letter to De Broglie of Nov. 1, 1778 (1986), when, after covering lightly D'Estaing's campaign, he says, "After M. d'Orvillier's success, the Strait of Dover is hardly more than a ditch." To return to De Kalb, who again writes to De Broglie on Nov. 7, 1778 (No. 1987), this time in cipher: he favors the conquest of Canada, for he thinks the Americans will inevitably reunite with England. "They bear impatiently the idea of the humiliation of England; the least check which the English armies experience from any others besides the insurgents seems to pain and humiliate them." Speaking in the same letter of the American idealization of Washington, he asserts that "if they were sure of always having Generals like him, they would soon lay down the law to the universe . . . this is said so often, that Washington believes it himself. I do not wish to decry his merit nor many good qualities which he possesses, but he is a poor General; his reputation is due to good fortune, to the misconduct, to the blindness of his adversaries, and especially to Providence"—phrases which anticipate Mr. Charles Francis Adams's late critique of the battle of Long Island. In No. 1988, writing in cipher on Nov. 11, 1778, still to the Comte de Broglie, De Kalb unconsciously goes far to explain why Americans may have heard impatiently of the "humiliation of England." "Do you not think, General," he says, "that it is better, as I said in my letter of the 7th November, to leave them some bone to pick which will keep up a quarrel for a long time, for otherwise we shall not succeed in securing a total separation?"

The French King seems to have partly understood the character of some of his officers when, in his direction to M. Gérard, he says that they "generally place too much importance on their services, which causes the insurgents to care little for them." The caution of Vergennes is as evident in this volume as it is everywhere else in these times. He even forbids the presentation of a piece, "La Fête Bostonienne," at the Comédie-Italienne, nominally because it was of too recent a date (Nos. 2001, 2003). Writing to Sartine, who asks in behalf of the Chamber of Commerce of Aunis and of other places that La Rochelle be made one of the free ports for Americans, this wary statesman says, "We cannot deal with this matter until after the peace. You are aware that until that period all our ports are free to the Americans" (Nos. 2004-2006).

There are several interesting papers (Nos. 1992, 1993, 1995, 1996, and 2000) which touch upon American credit in France. Nos. 1953, 1972, 1978 are concerned with our earliest relations as a nation with the Barbary Powers and our commerce in the Mediterranean. Vergennes in No. 1966 refuses a loan to William Lee, and says that the "Government takes no cognizance of private operations"; but Lee soon asks him for brass and iron cannon for Virginia (No. 1982), and represents that fortifications in that State would be of service to the French fleet, inasmuch as "Boston, the only fortified Port to the North, is frozen up every winter, and where Provisions are generally dear." The climate of Boston has softened much since Arthur and William Lee knew it.

The end of this volume (Nos. 2010 to 2023) is taken up with valuable material relating to the siége of Savannah and to the movements of D'Estaing's fleet at that time. To particularize is quite unnecessary, since Mr. Stevens's grouping and editing have made everything clear. In D'Estaing's notes on O'Connor's journal (No. 2018) it is asserted that an "appearance of success" was the motive of attacks, and that a refusal on the part of the French would have been considered cowardice by the Americans, "who are doubtful of nothing even when they have not the most elementary resources." The most significant document is Pechot's Journal (No. 2010). It is long and confused, as such accounts are apt to be, but is noticeable for what seems an undercurrent of innuendo against D'Estaing and the Americans. Upon the whole, however, one receives happier impressions of the French who aided us from this group of documents than were afforded by the letters written to France by disappointed officers earlier in this interesting volume.

On Snow-shoes to the Barren Grounds: Twenty-eight hundred miles after musk-oxen and wood-bison. By Caspar Whitney. Harper & Brothers. 1896. 8vo, pp. x, 324. Many illustrations.

THIS is a vivid narrative of one of the most daring adventures ever undertaken for the sole purpose of hunting big game. The main features of this exploit have been made public in *Harper's Magazine*, but here we have the full-rounded story. Until recently, comparatively few persons have had any adequate idea of the Barren Grounds, either as to the situation, the extent, or the physiography of these analogues of the Siberian tundras, where the musk-ox is the only permanently resident large quadruped, and where no man lives the year round—for the Eskimos are maritime, not inland, people. The difficulty of penetrating far into this desolate region is almost insurmountable; access is practicable only in consequence of the migratory herds of caribou at some seasons and the fish that may be caught at others. During the few months when the waters are open, the dreary waste may be reached by canoeing; but this is arduous, owing to the length and frequency of the

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required portages. The first white man who ever surmounted the difficulties and dangers of the Barren Grounds was Samuel Hearne, who in 1771–'72 succeeded in reaching the mouth of Coppermine River, from Prince of Wales Fort on Hudson's Bay, after failing in two different attempts to discover that river, in 1769 and 1770. Hearne's journey to the Coppermine was made in a different direction from Mr. Whitney's, and under different conditions of season, for the most part; like our author, he was the only white man of his party. Mr. Whitney's adventure finds its closest parallel, in most respects, in the expedition of Lieut. (afterward Sir) John Franklin, in 1821; in fact, his trail coincides with Franklin's at some points, notably that known as Fort Enterprise, at the "last wood." The map of the journey, though very small and showing little detail, enables us to follow our traveller intelligently.

Leaving the railroad at Edmonton—which was Fort Augustus before it acquired its present name—Mr. Whitney went north by sleigh to Lac la Biche, where his travel on snowshoes with dog sledges began in the depth of winter. The distance hence to Fort McMurray is 240 miles; and it is 185 miles further to Fort Chipewyan on Lake Athabasca. This is still the most important post in that region, and one which has a long history, going back to 1788, though the original site of this "little Athens of the hyperborean regions," as it used to be styled, is at some little distance from the position first pitched upon by Roderic McKenzie for an "emporium of the North." From this point it is 118 miles down Great Slave River to Fort Smith, where Mr. Whitney diverged from his main route for a round trip after wood-bison—that northerly variety of the so-called buffalo, now apparently quite as rare as the same species has become in the United States. From Fort Smith it is 170 miles to Fort Resolution on Great Slave Lake, where the daring enthusiast on the subject of musk-oxen made up his party of seven Indians and twenty-eight dogs for his final plunge of 475 miles still further northward—past the limit of trees, through the "Land of Little Sticks," where the last lingering traces of arborescence give way to sphagnum that stretches unbroken to the polar sea, and for most of the year is mantled with snow. It is a scene of such desolation as one would be tempted to call indescribable, had not Mr. Whitney's own description given rise to that temptation. Holding still northward, approximately along a meridian of 114°, the undaunted traveller passed the headwaters of Coppermine River; and, with the main stream on his left, at an increasing distance as he went on, he penetrated the arctic circle, and looped about on his return from a latitude apparently near 67°.

This is but a dry, bare skeleton of the perilous journey. The country was a great white desert, but there is no lack of color in the graphic and varied narrative. There was not often enough to eat in camp, but we have our fill in the book. The writing is particularly strong in its delineation of character: the Indians of various tribes, the ubiquitous half-breeds, and all the personalities with whom Mr. Whitney came in contact, stand before us with life-like reality. And the dogs, too, those unhappy creatures, those indispensable slaves of man, doomed to life-long misery of famine and the merciless lash—humanity is shocked at such suffering, in sole requital of services rendered. But what of the musk-ox, almost the sole object of so arduous and so dangerous an enterprise? They were found in plenty in their forbidding haunts, and are brought before our very eyes, from the time when the presence of a herd is first revealed, curiously enough, by the cloud of vapor arising from the animals, to that supreme moment, to a hunter, when the big game is bowled over. Let Mr. Whitney himself say how he felt under the excitement of the chase:

"Everything waltzed about me. I ran on and on in a sort of stupor, until, as I got to the top of a little ridge, I saw two musk oxen about a hundred yards ahead of and running easily though directly from me. And then the blood surged through my veins, the mist cleared from my eyes, and the rocks stopped whirling about me, for there, within range, was my quarry. I swung my rifle into position and dropped on my knee for surer aim. Heavens! my hand shook so that the front sight travelled all over the horizon, and my heart thumped against my side as though it would burst. I had sense enough left to realize that my shot might mean success or failure—for I felt my force was nearly spent. For a moment I rested to get my breath—and the musk-oxen were still going from me and then—another attempt—the foresight for an instant held true—another second's breathing—a quick aim—and I pressed the trigger. What a feeling of exultation as I saw my quarry stagger and then drop! I was dizzy with delight" (p. 221).

The book is full of such word-painting as this, though of course not always pitched in such a high key. Among the best things in it is the cooler description of the animal from a naturalist's standpoint; this is carefully done and may be relied upon. One of the most curious things we note is what Mr. Whitney has to say of the deceptiveness of apparent distances and magnitudes in that country. It is exactly the reverse of the illusion with which we are more familiar on our Western plains, where objects loom up bigger and seem nearer than they really are. In the Barren Grounds, things look smaller and seem further off, as if viewed through a field-glass reversed. Along with this spatial illusion there seems to occur a still more singular one regarding one's sense of lapse of time; and the whole effect recalls what some hashish eaters have told us of their phantasmagoria regarding magnitudes, distances, and especially duration. "When I tripped over a rock," says Mr. Whitney, p. 220, "I seemed to tumble a hundred feet and to take a hundred years to regain my feet." Aside from any question of exaggeration in thus describing a sensation, the author's style may perhaps be open to some criticism on the score of superlatives; but if so, it is the hyperbole of enthusiasm which deceives no one, and raises no suspicion of the traveller's long bow. We think intentional exaggeration would be difficult in such a case as the present, which only a ready and skilful pen could set forth with requisite distinctness, even with the aid of numerous illustrations. These are simply admirable; we have seldom seen a book of travels more copiously and tellingly illustrated. The text is also beautifully printed, in large and brilliant type.

Mr. Whitney is to be congratulated, first, upon getting back from the Barren Grounds alive to tell the tale, and then upon telling it so well that this book is sure to take its place among the very best of its kind.

A Text-Book of the History of Architecture. By A. D. F. Hamlin, A.M., Adjunct-Professor of Architecture in the School of Mines, Columbia College. Longmans, Green & Co. 1896. Pp. xxv, 441; 229 illustrations in the text.

THIS book is second of the series of College Histories of Art edited by Prof. John C. Van Dyke, and of which the History of Painting, written by the editor of the series, has already appeared. The book before us is extremely well furnished with bibliographies and lists of monuments, each important division of the work having at the head of the chapter the list of books recommended, and a list, at the close, of the monuments thought most worthy to be cited. As regards the bibliographical part, the author finds the difficulty which we all feel, namely, that there are few general treatises of any value, while the monographs are too elaborate, too costly, and too limited in their application for the general student, and altogether too numerous for any serious attempt to classify and select with judgment from the overwhelming mass. Among the books given are some which are mere folios of plates, and some which are hopelessly antiquated, with their critical opinions now recognized as wholly misleading; but we mention this merely as an illustration of the great difficulty attending the task. The lists of monuments are excellent. It would be very hard to improve upon the choice here presented, and the dates are given according to the latest authorities in every case we have been able to test. In this matter of the dates we think that a suggestion of their frequent uncertainty would have been in place, as such a notice was thought to be by Mr. Longfellow in Scribners' 'Cyclopedia of Architecture,' recently reviewed in these columns. On the other hand, Prof. Hamlin's way of giving the dates, even when not absolutely certain, seems the right plan, because errors in history are recognized as very common things, and the way to get them corrected is to keep before the student the knowledge so far gained and the inferences so far drawn as an encouragement to further investigation. All the books are written on the supposition that S.-Front at Périgueux, let us say, was begun in 1047. Now, if it could be proved that the building was begun sixty years later, it would be a valuable contribution to knowledge, and one chapter of history would have to be revised; but in the meantime the accepted date is a part of history as it now exists, and must be kept before the student.

The text of the book is very valuable because of the singularly intelligent view taken of the building of each separate epoch. The chapter on Primitive and Prehistoric Architecture shows a complete grasp of the subject, brief as it is. The facts here given and the inferences drawn from them are the essential facts and the safe inferences. In like manner Roman architecture is explained according to its essential characteristics. A complete analysis and explanation of the whole could only be an enlargement of the same theme, with additional facts and an array of evidence and examples. The story is told as completely as the brief space would allow. It is hard to say in advance whether any one book will make a good school book or not, but if any reasonable part of the contents of this book can be got into the heads of those who study it, they will have excellent ideas about architecture, and the beginnings of a sound knowledge of it.

Jewish Ideals, and Other Essays. By Joseph Jacobs. Macmillan. 1896.

MR. JACOBS, well known for his work in Jewish history as well as in the field of popular tales and fables, has gathered into this interesting volume a number of essays which have appeared in various periodicals during the

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past eighteen years. Some deal with theology, some with history, one with the diffusion of popular tales, and one with a famous legend of *mediæval times*. It is only with the last two that we are at present interested. In the remarkable diffusion of the great Oriental literary collections of tales, the Jews played, as is well known, an important part. They were well fitted to act as intermediaries, and their Hebrew and Latin versions of Arabic translations or adaptations of Indian originals furnished all Europe with entertaining tales. In the essay "Jewish Diffusion of Folk-Tales," the author deals with five works which he calls "junctions," *i. e.*, translations which in turn were translated and acted as channels for the further diffusion of the work in question. These five are: Petrus Alphonsi's 'Disciplina Clericalis'; Simeon Seth's translation of the 'Alexandreid'; the various Jewish versions of the fables of Bidpai, known by the name of 'Kalila and Dimna'; R. Joel's 'Mishle Sendabar'; and Pauli's 'Schimpf und Ernst.' The second is one of Mr. Jacobs's "finds," and, as it cannot be substantiated, may be dismissed. The first differs somewhat from the others in that it is, as a collection, original with Petrus Alphonsi; the stories, it is true, are from Oriental sources. One of the most interesting facts about the diffusion of this collection was discovered by Mr. Jacobs while editing 'The Fables of Æsop as first printed by William Caxton in 1484,' that is, that thirteen of Petrus Alphonsi's stories were printed at the end of Caxton's translation under the title of "The Fables of Alfonce." The fifth book hardly belongs in the list at all. Pauli, it is true, was the son of Jewish parents, and early became a Christian and later a famous Franciscan preacher. His book, 'Schimpf und Ernst,' is relatively a modern production (it was finished in 1518), and contributed little to the diffusion of specific Oriental tales. Mr. Jacobs's remarks on the two other books do not add materially to the knowledge of the subject.

The second essay, on Little St. Hugh of Lincoln, is an excellent example of the author's skill in constructive criticism. The child was supposed to have been crucified by the Jews of Lincoln in contumely and insult of Jesus Christ. Mr. Jacobs shows how impossible it was for the Jews to use human blood or human sacrifices in any way as a part of their religious rites, and then endeavors, by the aid of history and topography, to reconstruct the probable event. The child, in his opinion, was accidentally drowned in a cesspool attached to the house of a Jew, where it was discovered during the wedding festivities of the daughter of the chief rabbi of the town. The Jews committed the mistake of trying to conceal the body by removing it from the neighborhood of the Jewry and casting it into a well. It was found there three days later by a woman passing by. The accusation of the Jews was partly the result of Christian desire to add to the attractions of the cathedral, and was partly due to the hatred of Henry III. for the Jews and his wish to extort money from them. This explanation is extremely plausible, and the whole essay is, in the words of the author, "an object-lesson of the modern methods of research in history, archæology, and legend."

A Federal South Africa: A Comparison of the critical period of American history with the present position of the Colonies and States of South Africa, and a consideration of the advantages of a Federal Union. By Percy Alport Molteno, LL.B. With maps. London: Sampson Low, Marston & Co. 1896.

RECENT events lead us to feel an unusual interest in anything which seems likely to help us understand the domestic affairs of South Africa, but Mr. Molteno's book will find its largest field of usefulness in that country. It has little to offer to the outsider, especially to the American. He is a most earnest advocate of the federation of the South African states, and his book was written to further that cause. Its special purpose is, by relating the difficulties in the way of the formation of the Constitution of the United States, and by describing the most important features of that Constitution, to show the people of South Africa how they may overcome the difficulties in the way of their union—which he believes to be very similar to those in America in 1787—and to point out the objects to be aimed at. The work is so well done that it ought to be of great practical assistance in his own home, and very likely in Australia as well. To the American the book seems full of the most elementary and commonplace instruction, but it must be remembered how little the Anglo-Saxon, outside of North America, knows of federation as a working system. The author's chief guides are Fiske's 'Critical Period of American History,' Bryce, and the 'Federalist,' and he has read with good judgment and understanding. It is a most encouraging sign when the troublous times which created the federal system for the modern world begin to be studied with intelligent purpose by those whose political future demands the formation of a federal union.

The problem before the South African differs from that which the Canadian had recently to solve in that two of the states concerned are non-English and independent. This leads Mr. Molteno to the opinion—and he is undoubtedly right—that freer hand must be allowed to the people of South Africa in the formation of their union; that their Constitution must be wholly their own act and be subject freely to amendment by themselves alone, as, in form at least, the Canadian Constitution is not. The spirit of local independence is strong throughout the book. England, of all foreign Powers, is the only one which South Africa can at present depend upon, and she must be looked to for external protection. Germany's colonial methods render progress impossible, and the supremacy of Germany in South Africa would mean stagnation and ruin. But in all internal matters there must be complete local independence. The relation of the states to each other; the character of the state governments and the details of the general Constitution; the settling of vacant lands, the admission of new states, and the annexation of foreign territories; the treatment of the native, and the regulation of the labor market—all questions of this sort must be left entirely to the decision of the future federation. Mr. Molteno is vigorous in his assertion of the fact that the colonists alone understand and know how to deal with the conditions of the local problems. He does not spare words to make clear his belief that in numerous cases the interference of the English Government in the internal affairs of South Africa in the past has been disastrous to the best interests of the country. South Africa has certainly suffered its full share of misfortune from the officious ignorance and misunderstanding of the home Government, of which every colony has had to complain since English colonies began.

Mr. Molteno's faith is strong in the eventual formation of the union he desires. His faith goes even beyond this. He believes that such a federation may in time come into possession of the South African territories now held by Germany and Portugal. In support of this belief he calls attention to the expansion of the United States since 1783, and prints a map of our annexations, to make the case more clear. The similarity of conditions must be admitted. It is great enough to make our experience something more than an analogy for the South African. In any case, it is self-evident that the formation of such a locally independent federation would make the absorption of the foreign territories far easier than while the Cape is directly under English rule. This is a result which the whole Anglo-Saxon world ought to desire, for the strategic importance to the race of the possession of South Africa can hardly be overstated.

The extreme difficulties in the way of federation Mr. Molteno does not ignore—the great differences between the units to be combined, and the many causes of jealousy and distrust in the events of the past and in present conditions. The book was written before the Jameson raid had taken place, but it indicates clearly enough that the author's judgment must be that this event has seriously prejudiced the cause of union.

The Cruise of the Antarctic to the South Polar Regions. By H. J. Bull. London and New York: E. Arnold. 1896. 8vo, pp. viii, 243. Ills.

THE projector of the expedition to the Antarctic, Mr. Bull, has given us in this volume an account of the voyage, of which most of the incidents have been already made public through the lectures of Mr. Borchgrevink, who accompanied the expedition from Australia. The work is illustrated by a number of drawings by Mr. Burn-Murdoch, whose simultaneous experiences, 'From Edinburgh to the Antarctic,' have been already reviewed in these columns. Thus the present volume supplies little that is new, but puts in permanent form the details of the expedition. The hope of finding the right whales reported by Sir John Ross induced Capt. Svend Foyn, a wealthy Norwegian whaling-master, to equip the vessel at an expense of some thousands of pounds; and, from what we are told, it appears that an unfortunate selection of a commander and the inexperience of the crew were chiefly responsible for the financial failure of the voyage, which resulted in little more than a revisitation of and landing upon the Antarctic continent at Cape Adare, the discovery of a lichen on the rocks, and some little information about the conditions of navigation in this region. The supposed right whales were not found, and the vessel reached the sealing-grounds too late to obtain a cargo there, and also encountered several mishaps en route. As a part of the record of navigation in high southern latitudes the book has a certain usefulness. Mr. J. J. H. Teall has a petrological appendix on a lava from Possession Island, a nepheline tephrite and a quartzose pebble from Cape Adare, which forms the only contribution to science here recorded. The book is handsomely printed, but is deficient in both a map and an index.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Brisson, Adolphe. Portraits Intimes. Deuxième série. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Carmichael, Montgomery. Sketches and Stories, Grave and Gay. London: Archibald Constable & Co.
Educational Music Course. First Reader, 35c.; Second Reader, 35c.; Third Reader, 40c. Boston: Ginn & Co.

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